DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 037 707 24 AL 002 332

AUTHOR	Peterson, Robert O. H.
TITLE	Teaching Standard English as a Second Dialect to Primary School Children in Hilo, Hawaii. Volume I of II Volumes. Final Report.
INSTITUTION	Hawaii State Dept. of Education, Hilo.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
BUREAU NO	BR-5-0692
PUB DATE	Oct 69
CONTRACT	OEC-6-10-176
NOTE	220p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$1.00 HC-$11.10
DESCRIPTORS	Audiolingual Methods, *Contrastive Linguistics, Language Instruction, Language Proficiency, Language Tests, Material Development, *Nonstandard Dialects, Pattern Drills (Language), Pidgins, Primary Grades, *Standard Spoken Usage, *Tenl
IDENTIFIERS	*Hawaii Islands Dialect

ABSTRACT

This document describes a four-year program designed to develop and test a method for teaching standard English to nonstandard dialect speakers in the first four grades of elementary school in Hilo, Hawaii. Chapters in this first volume are (1) Introduction, (2) Project Site and Evaluation Strategy, (3) Instrumentation, (4) Development of Lesson Materials, (5) Presentation of Lessons, and (6) Conclusions and Recommendations. Appended is a contrastive analysis of Standard American English and the Hawaii Islands Dialect of English. AL 002 333 contains the Teacher's Guide and Lessons. (DO)

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FINAL REPORT

Project No. 5-0692
Contract No. OE-6-10-176

Volume I of II Volumes

TEACHING STANDARD ENGLISH AS A SECOND DIALECT TO PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN IN HILO, HAWAII

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Coordinator
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Hilo, Hawaii 96720

October 1969

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The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people have contributed to this project. In our attempt to name everyone, we may have unintentionally left some names out.

Inquiries which gave rise to this project were begun by Dale P. Crowley, Senior Linguist at the Hilo Peace Corps Training Center, Harry C. Chuck, now Hawaii District Superintendent of Education, Elaine Kono, Hawaii District Language Arts Curriculum Specialist, and Ralph H. Kiyosaki, now Hawaii State Superintendent of Education.

Mr. Crowley designed the project and was the Principal Investigator for two years. Mr. Chuck was Project Coordinator. Arthur P. Coladarci, Associate Dean of Stanford University's School of Education, guided research methodology and data analysis. Elaine E. Sugai, Miyoko Sugano, Jean Matsumura, and David E. Marsters supervised data collection and speech proficiency ratings. Miss Sugai and Miss Sugano wrote the project lesson materials and the teacher's guide. Mr. Marsters assisted with the writing of pattern drills. The entire staff contributed to teacher training. Robert O. H. Petersen assisted with materials development the first two years of the project and served as the Principal Investigator during the final two years. The project teachers were Anna Chow, Lily Inada, Florence Kubota, and Marilyn Nishimoto. Adele Jensen was the secretary for the project and prepared all the masters for this report.

Consultants to the project were: Howard P. McKaughan, Stanley M. Tsuzaki, Charles W. Whitley, and Neil Weintraub, University of Hawaii; Robert W. Politzer, Frederick J. McDonald, and Paul V. Lorton, Jr., Stanford University; Basil Willett, Woodside (California) School District; Andrew MacLeish, Northern Illinois University; and Walter Loban, University of California.

The contrastive analysis was prepared by Gloria Glissmeyer, Teresa Cheng, Stanley Tsuzaki, and Mary Lou Huebl, all of the University of Hawaii, under the direction of Howard P. McKaughan.

Lillian Noda, Alice Fujimoto, Margaret Stearns, and Myrtle Zane administered project tests. Speech proficiency ratings were assigned by Frances de Silva, Mae N. Morita, Edward Hayashi, Ethel Yoshimasu, Nobuko Fukuda, Donna Saiki, Bessie Shindo, Margaret Gota, Ethel Borges, Dorothy Liu, Akiko Oda, Norman Yoshida, Yuriko Aoki, Margaret Char, Kay Yamauchi, and Leila Kanno. Catherine D. Campainha assisted in teacher training.

Barbara Kim, Program Specialist in Speech Education for the Hawaii State Department of Education, Elaine Kono, Hawaii District Language Arts Curriculum Specialist, Mae N. Morita, Hawaii District Elementary Education Curriculum Specialist, and Shiho Nunes, Associate Director of the Hawaii Curriculum Center, have given the project staff much valuable advice and encouragement.

Robert Hirano and Arthur Leithead, present and past Principals at Keaukaha School, and the school faculty assisted the project in many ways. Violet Henry, Principal of Haaheo Elementary School, Peter Kawahara, Principal of Honokohau Elementary School, and their faculties graciously allowed the project staff to test materials in their classrooms.

The project is grateful for the interest shown by the Hawaiian Homes Commission and their generous contribution of funds in support of project research.

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SUMMARY

Assumptions and Hypotheses

The prevalence of nonstandard English (often called "Pidgin English") in Hawaii has long been a problem of major proportions to educators. The learning difficulties faced by children who cannot operate in standard English are great, and for some, may be nearly insurmountable. This report describes a 4-year program designed to develop and test a method for teaching standard English to nonstandard dialect speakers in the first four grades of elementary school in Hilo, Hawaii.

The rationale for the project was based on the following assumptions:

1. The teaching of standard English will be more successful when bidialectism is valued and no attempt is made to eliminate the native nonstandard dialect.

2. It is necessary to teach only those features of the standard dialect that are in contrast with nonstandard speech.

3. The learning of standard English should start as early as possible.

4. Children will have difficulty in learning through the medium of standard English if they control only a nonstandard dialect.

5. Hypotheses and methods for teaching standard English which are successful in Hawaii can be generalized to other dialect areas.

The research hypothesis was that young (K-3) nonstandard dialect-speaking children can more effectively develop oral proficiency in a standard dialect through an educational treatment characterized by:

1. Focus on only those speech elements that are in linguistic contrast with the native nonstandard dialect;

2. Sequencing of the "target" contrasts (logically and

empirically) over the school year and over successive grade levels;

3. Intensive short-period "drill" on target contrasts with meaningful and interesting oral episodes, each of which embodies maximum use of the target contrast and minimum reference to unlearned contrasts;

4. Continual reinforcement of pupil control of targets outside the scheduled drill periods;

5. Emphasis on rewarding control of standard dialect rather than punishment of nonstandard usage;

6. The use of teachers who are good models of the standard dialect appropriate to the local scene.

A subsidiary hypothesis was that improvement in control of a standard dialect is associated with improved school achievement in all curricular areas in which oral proficiency is a parameter.

Experimental Situation

The site chosen for the project was the Keaukaha Elementary School, which is located in the Hawaiian Homes Project area in Hilo. Ninety-five percent of the pupils live on Hawaiian Homes land and most are speakers of the local nonstandard ("Pidgin") English dialect.

Keaukaha Elementary School operated two classrooms for each grade; the project used one classroom as an experimental class and one as a control class for each of the grades K through 3.

Four varieties of performance measurements were made: (1) oral proficiency in standard English, (2) achievement in general language arts, (3) reading readiness, (4) scholastic ability in the language area.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were developed for the measurement of oral proficiency. The first one measured proficiency along four dimensions: (1) phonology, (2) grammar, (3) morphophonemics, (4) complexity of structure. This measurement was adequate for project purposes but was abandoned because it was too costly and time-consuming.

For the second instrument, recorded speech samples were elicited by "picture stories" of local relevance to children in Hawaii. These samples were rated by a panel of three raters on a scale of seven points (from "exclusively or almost exclusively Hawaii Islands Dialect" to "exclusively or almost exclusively standard English") along the dimensions of "grammatical proficiency," "phonological proficiency," and "overall proficiency." This scale was reliable enough with respect to the same child's speech over time and to the same child's different speech samples for adoption as a measure of oral proficiency on the project.

Other instruments used were: (1) California Test of Mental Maturity, (2) California Achievement Test ("Reading" and "Language" scores), (3) Metropolitan Readiness Test.

Materials Development

A prerequisite to lesson materials development was the contrastive analysis of the Hawaii Islands Dialect and standard English. This would furnish information for the selection of learning "targets." The University of Hawaii conducted this analysis for the project. Once selected, the targets were sequenced over the school year, with the sequence repeated for each grade level. Sequencing was determined through advice from the project teachers.

The lesson materials are in the form of lesson plans, containing dialogues, pattern drills, minimal pair drills, recognition drills, pronunciation drills, communication exercises, and other current language teaching devices. An attempt was made to provide each lesson with many examples of the learning target for that step in the sequence, while utilizing few or no untaught targets. Revisions were based on classroom observations, teachers' evaluations, and trial teaching by lesson writers. The course of lesson development provided the experimental group pupils with an increasing exposure to the project curriculum, approaching complete treatment during the final two years of the project.

Materials Presentation

Lessons were presented for short periods totaling 30 minutes per day. Presentation methods followed generally accepted practices of the audio-lingual approach, and teacher training attempted, through discussions, demonstration teaching, peer teaching, observation, critique, and directed reading, to prepare the teacher for such presentation.

Observations of experimental and control classes indicated that they did differ with respect to the hypotheses, methods, and assumptions of the experimental treatment. The effectiveness of the presentation of the experimental treatment was somewhat less than the optimal visualization of the project staff. However, presentation was adequate, if less than perfect, and provided a reasonable and realistic test of the project.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the relevance of the speech rating instrument indicated that all raters were able to judge with relative accuracy the oral language proficiency of the children, and produced a good assessment of the children's overall oral language competency.

The experimental and control populations did not appear to differ in general ability, but speech proficiency ratings were higher for the experimental group than for the control group for all years except the first. Speech proficiency ratings also indicate that boys were more demonstrably affected by the treatment than girls.

Conclusions

The speech proficiency rating scale developed on this project was demonstrated to have relevance and reliability, and may be generalized for use in other areas where there are populations characterized by nonstandard dialect speakers.

The instructional procedures and materials described in this report appear to be more effective than those techniques found in "normal" language arts programs in grades K-3 of the Hawaii public schools in improving speech proficiency along standard-nonstandard dimensions. We assume that replication of the study with more agreement among teachers on the nature and procedures of the experimental treatment would produce even greater relative effectiveness. Both experimental and control classes were located in the same school, and contamination of treatment inevitably occurred. The significant results in favor of the experimental group, however, reduces the meaning of such contamination. Presumably the experimental and control group differences might have been greater had no contamination occurred.

The hypothesis about the transfer effect of speech proficiency on other language arts achievement parameters was not confirmed.

We feel that with more explicit instructional effort with attention to reinforcement and the correlation of oral language and reading materials, transfer of oral competence to other language-related competence can be expected.

We feel that the conclusion of local validity can be generalized to other locations in Hawaii or elsewhere with fair assurance, although the need for cross-validation and adjustment of materials and methods to local situations is necessary.

I INTRODUCTION

Second Dialect Teaching and Background for the Project

It is now commonplace to note that the demands of life increasingly require a more effective performance by the schools in providing for education for all the people in this country. Among the many barriers to this achievement is the existence, in many areas, of large numbers of children who come to school unable to function adequately in the language of the classroom.[1] They are speakers of one of the nonstandard varieties of English who have not learned a standard ("General American") English, the variety of English used in all phases of schooling. Nor furthermore, do they all learn standard English during their stay in school.[2] Robert L. Politzer[3] says of these children:

> Thus, children whose native language is a nonstandard dialect are expected to learn to read as if they were already speakers of standard English, to use teaching materials prepared for speakers of standard English, and to grasp the reading rules which are formulated in standard English. From studies made in elementary school classrooms, it has been found that in the initial stages of instruction many teachers use a vocabulary 20 to 50 percent of whose words may be unknown or

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[1] Charles G. Hurst, Jr., Wallace L. Jones, "Generating Spontaneous Speech in the Underprivileged Child," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 36 (1967), pp. 362-367.

Walter Loban, Problems in Oral English, NCTE Committee on Research Report No. 5, (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966), p. 1.

[2] Dale P. Crowley, Ralph H. Kiyosaki, "Proposal for a Research and Demonstration Project Under the Provisions of Public Law 531," (Hilo: Dep't. of Education, State of Hawaii, mimeographed, 1965), p. 1.

[3] Robert L. Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, Research and Development Memorandum No. 40, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching (Stanford: Stanford University School of Education, 1968), p. 1.

> unfamiliar to some of their pupils. No wonder, then, that the school experience of many of the linguistically disadvantaged does little to remedy their disadvantages but--on the contrary--accentuates the language deficit of the learner.

He goes on to say that we naturally do not expect anyone who does not know a given foreign language to perform in that language, and we do not carry out his education in the foreign language, nor do we evaluate his performance based on tests given in it. It is obvious that a person must know the language before he can be expected to function in it.

Nonstandard dialect speakers, on the other hand, are expected to perform all school tasks through the medium of standard English, a medium they do not effectively control. The disastrous results of this are obvious to anyone who looks at the language abilities of such pupils.[4] Clearly, such children need to learn to control the language of instruction. The problem, however, is not always recognized for what it is. Communication failure is not always attributed to dialect differences and dialect differences, unlike foreign language differences, are not usually clear-cut and uniform for all speakers in all situations.[5]

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[4] Crowley, Kiyosaki, "Proposal for a Research and Demonstration Project," p. 2.

Hurst, "Generating Spontaneous Speech in the Underprivileged Child," pp. 1-2.

Raven I. McDavid, "Social Dialects: Cause or Symptom of Social Maladjustment," Social Dialects and Language Learning, Roger W. Shuy, Ed., (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964), pp. 3-9.

New York Board of Education, Nonstandard Dialect, (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967), p. vii.

Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 1-2.

[5] William Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, (Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), pp. 1-68.

Stanley M. Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation: The Case of Hawaiian English," Pidginization and Creolization of Languages, Dell H. Hymes, Ed., (Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, forthcoming).

Moreover communication breakdowns between dialects are as a rule only partial, not complete.[6] These factors make a clear perception of the problem difficult.

Some linguists and educators have recommended that nonstandare dialect speakers be taught a standard English through the methods of foreign language teaching.[7] The similarity of the two situations is obvious--both foreign language teaching and second dialect teaching deal with communication in a new system of speech. The similarity is deceiving, however, and many problems arise when application is attempted.[8]

For all practical purposes every feature of a foreign language is a learning goal. Dialects of the same language, on the other hand, share many of their features. It is assumed that there will be interference to learning where features of the foreign language contrast with those of the learner's native language. Such interference is more subtle in second dialect learning, harder for the learner and the teacher to identify, and the effects are more difficult to over-come. In a sense, interference of learning is greater where what is to be learned closely resembles that which the learner already knows--a phenomenon adequately demonstrated in many years of psychological research under the label of "retroactive inhibition."

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[6] Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, pp. 39-41.
Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 7-9.

[7] William S. Carroll, Irvin Feigenbaum, "Teaching a Second Dialect and Some Implications for TESOL," TESOL Quarterly, Vol. I, No. 3 (Sept. 1967), pp. 31-40.
Marvin D. Loflin, "A Teaching Problem in Non-Standard Negro English," English Journal, Vol. 56, No. 9 (Dec. 1967), pp. 1312-1314.
William A. Stewart, "Foreign Language Teaching Methods in Quasi-Foreign Language Situations," Non-Standard Speech and the Teaching of English, William A. Stewart, Ed., (Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964), pp. 1-15.

[8] See for example, Dale P. Crowley, "Language Programs Contrasted," Elementary English, Vol. XLIV, No. 7 (Nov. 1967), pp. 756-761.
Robert O. H. Petersen, "The Hilo Language Development Project," Elementary English, Vol. XLIV, No. 7 (Nov. 1967), p. 754.
Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 1-18.

From this it seems to follow that the need for knowledge of the similarities and contrasts between speech systems is more critical in the dialect-to-dialect situation, where the identification of learning goals is more difficult and the effects of subjecting pupils to exercises designed to teach what they already know fosters boredom and frustration and affects their whole learning outlook.

In learning a foreign language, motivation is usually the result of a desire to become acquainted with the culture of those who use the language, or to make use of the language in business, diplomacy, academic studies, or simply to get a good grade.[9] What will serve as adequate motivation for learning a standard dialect is not clear. In fact, some research indicates that often there is strong motivation not to learn a standard dialect.[10] Some feel that the most that can be hoped for is to motivate the pupils to satisfy the teacher with the desired performance, or to derive some enjoyment and satisfaction from the process of dialect learning itself.[11]

Occasions for speaking (and practicing) a foreign language are clear-cut--you are either speaking the foreign language or your native one. On the other hand, recent research has shown that nonstandard dialects exist in a complex relationship to the standard, with separation of dialect levels best viewed as variable and determined by various grammatical, usage, and social rules.[12] In such a complex situation, the occasions for speaking nonstandard and standard dialects in their various levels are difficult to separate clearly for the pupil.[13]

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[9] Wallace E. Lambert, "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 23, (April 1967), pp. 91-109.

Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 9-11.

[10] Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, p. 27.

Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 10-11.

[11] Dale P. Crowley, "The Keaukaha Model for Mainstream Dialect Instruction," Language Learning, Vol. XVIII, Nos. 1 & 2 (June 1968), pp. 133-134.

The teaching methodologies used in the oral phase of the "audio-lingual" or "linguistic" approach to teaching foreign languages will be useful in the similar situation of second dialect teaching. But they must be applied with caution. The strategies of memorization and variation of grammatical patterns which figure so largely in this approach all too often are realized as sterile pattern drills in which manipulation of verbal symbols is carried out with little or no reference to meaning or context. Although this has been advocated in some of the literature of second language teaching, the value of such empty practice for language learning is questionable and is being subjected to increasing criticism.[14] In second dialect learning, where there is a high potential for cross-dialect interference, there is even more reason to regard it as probably inadequate and possibly damaging. Contact with reality must be maintained; real communication must take place if the second dialect learner is to sustain his interest and attention through practice sessions.

Opportunities to attempt the transfer of the behavior practiced in language lessons to everyday communication are limited for the foreign language pupil unless he is in a community where the language is spoken. The standard dialect pupil has many occasions to try out his new behavior outside of the language lesson. The school day is conducted in the standard dialect; unless he is buried in an urban ghetto or isolated in a rural slum, he will come into contact with the standard dialect many times a day both in and out of school.

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[12] Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, pp. 1-68.
Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation."
Stanley M. Tsuzaki, "Hawaiian-English: Pidgin, Creole, or Dialect?" Pacific Speech, Vol. 1, No. 2, (1967), pp. 25-28.

[13] Crowley, "Language Programs Contrasted," p. 760.

[14] Gerald Dykstra, An Investigation of New Concepts in Language Learning, Final Report, USOE Bureau of Research Project No. HE-084 (New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1967), pp. 205-233.
J. W. Oller, H. Obrecht, "Pattern Drill and Communicative Activity: A Psycholinguistic Experiment," International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, Vol. 6, (1968), pp. 167-174.
Robert L. Politzer, "Some Reflections on Pattern Practice," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 48, (1964), pp. 24-29.

If we are to teach standard English, the question of just what constitutes standard English must be dealt with. Virginia F. Allen[15] states that

> ... standard American English is the kind of English habitually used by most of the educated English-speaking persons in the United States.

Charles C. Fries[16] has a similar view:

> In the matter of the English language it is clear that anyone who cannot use the language habits in which the major affirs of the country are conducted, the language habits of the socially acceptable of most communities, would have a serious handicap.

These statements are very general; they allow for great freedom and variation in the interpretation of just what it is that the term "standard" implies. This is probably inevitable. Regional variations in what are considered the most "acceptable" features of speech, continuing changes in the acceptability of various features, and the complex nature of the relationships of standard to nonstandard systems make a detailed definition that would clearly separate standard from nonstandard English almost impossible to formulate at this time.

If one of the immediate purposes in teaching the standard dialect is to give all pupils facility in the language of instruction and textbooks, this language, insofar as it can be described and understood, will serve as a model for the standard. The existing grammars and descriptions of English will have to serve as the guide until further research furnishes more information.

Wherever one goes in this country there will be found social and regional nonstandard varieties of English. Hawaii is no exception.[17] The number of children entering the schools without an adequate control of the language of instruction has long been a problem of major proportions. Until the pupil learns to use and understand standard English, he has great difficulty in all the curriculum areas, and particularly in reading and writing. The loss to himself, the school system, and the community is patent. Furthermore, far too many pupils suffer from lack of standard language control throughout their schooling.[18]

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[15] Virginia F. Allen, "Teaching Standard English as a Second Dialect," Teachers College Record, Vol. 68, No. 5, (Feb. 1967), p. 355.

[16] Charles C. Fries, American English Grammar, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940), p. 14.

There has been a great deal of discussion about the relationships between standard and nonstandard varieties of English in Hawaii in both the popular and academic press.[19] Various arguments support the views that the nonstandard language is a pidgin, or that it is a creole, or that it is a dialectal variation.[20] Tsuzaki[21] argues convincingly that all three types exist (i.e., an English based pidgin, an English based creole, a nonstandard English dialect) in a complex relationship with standard English, and that many individuals shift from one to another or mix the varieties. He speaks of a conglomerate of nonstandard systems. More research along these lines will help us to understand and perhaps solve the educational problems generated by this complex situation. In the meantime, it is useful for the purposes of education to view this conglomerate of nonstandard systems as a nonstandard dialect of English, at least as it is observed in the usages of school children (see Appendix A).

There has been no lack of attempt in the past to help pupils in

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[17] See Stanley M. Tsuzaki, John E. Reinecke, English in Hawaii: An Annotated Bibliography, (Oceanic Linguistics Special Publications No. 1; Honolulu: Pacific and Asian Linguistics Institute, University of Hawaii, 1966).

[18] Crowley, Kiyosaki, "Proposal for a Research and Demonstration Project," p. 2.

[19] Tsuzaki, Reinecke, English in Hawaii: An Annotated Bibliography.

[20] Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation."
Tsuzaki, "Hawaiian-English: Pidgin, Creole, or Dialect?"
For a discussion of pidgins, creoles, and dialects, see Robert A. Hall, Jr., Pidgin and Creole Languages, (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1966).

[21] Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation."
Tsuzaki, "Hawaiian-English: Pidgin, Creole, or Dialect?"

Hawaii with nonstandard speech problems.[22] These programs have met with varying degrees of success. But they have been of too limited scope, concentrating on only a few isolated speech problems or failing to make use of available linguistic information and language teaching methods.[23] Many children in Hawaii are still handicapped in school because of a lack of facility in standard English.

This report describes a program designed to develop and test a method for teaching standard English to nonstandard dialect speakers in the first four grades of elementary school in Hilo, Hawaii.

Rationale for the Project

The rationale for the Hilo oral language project developed from the following assumptions.

1. The teaching of a standard dialect will be much more successful when bidialectism is valued and there is no attempt to proscribe the native nonstandard dialect.[24] In the absence of a police state or an accepted national movement it is probably impossible to obliterate a dialect by forbidding its use. Indeed, it makes no practical or psychological sense to eliminate a nonstandard dialect because: a) the psychological resistance of the learner to the loss of his native speech will create a resistance to learning a new dialect, and b) bidialectism is to be valued for the greater freedom in expression, social activities, and educational possibilities open to the speaker of more than one dialect. The native dialect (standard or nonstandard) expresses and enhances the personal, family, and group identity of each person in the community--there is a decided personal and social advantage in its use.

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[22] e.g., Doris C. Ching, "Effects of a Six Month Remedial English Program on Oral, Writing and Reading Skills of Third Grade Hawaiian Bilingual Children," _The Journal of Experimental Education_, Vol. 32, (1963), pp. 133-145.

[23] Crowley, Kiyosaki, "Proposal for a Research and Demonstration Project."

[24] Walter Loban, "Teaching Children Who Speak Social Class Dialects," _Elementary English_, (Vol. XLV, No. 5, May, 1968), pp. 593-596.

Robert O. H. Petersen, "On the Proscription of Non-Standard English in Hawaii," _Pacific Speech_, (Vol. 1, No. 4, May, 1967), pp. 29-35.

A person's native speech is an intimate part of his personality. In it he was introduced to the concepts and customs of his home and community. All the affairs of his life have been carried out in it, from scoldings at home to relaxing and playing with friends. It is part of his view of himself, his family, and his community. To question it is to question his worth as a human being, his parents, his very way of life. To suggest that it is unworthy of use is to attack and denigrate him directly. Nunes[25] says:

> One fundamental fact . . . is the centrality and tenacity of language in our lives. Because language is so intimately a part of our feelings and daily activities, our nationality and religion, indeed our very selves, any attempt to mandate it out of existence is bound to meet with resistance and ultimate failure. Whatever status or lack of status a person's speech may have, any suggestion that it is inferior will be a reflection on what is closest to him and will be damaging to his self-esteem. Prohibitions and commands only arouse resentment.

And Hormann[26] notes:

> It must be recognized that a language which a person learns in childhood is more than a tool, but an important part of the culture which is moulding him. The local dialect is not only the language of intimacy between the generations, but also among contemporaries. Because it is more than a tool, it would be a serious thing to combat directly. The emotional confusion is likely to be more serious if the intimate social ties are undermined, rather than if the child finds it necessary to use two languages.

To attempt to prohibit and eliminate nonstandard speech in the interest of teaching standard English is impractical because of the resistance, ego-threat, and ill-will such a method will generate. The school's approbation of his language probably will be received and understood by the pupil in the same way that racial prejudice would be. The standard dialect the school is so interested in replacing his speech with will be a target for his reactions. In the words of Thomas Creswell:[27]

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[25] Shiho S. Nunes, "'Pidgin Is a Good': A New Attitude, A New Approach," Hawaii Schools, Vol. 2, No. 6 (1965), p. 4.

[26] Bernard L. Hormann, "Speech, Prejudice, and the School in Hawaii," Social Process in Hawaii, Vol. 11 (1947), p. 79.

> . . . the way to teach new forms or varieties or patterns of language is not to attempt to eliminate the old forms but to build upon them while at the same time valuing them in a way which is consonant with the desire for dignity which is in each of us.

2. In a program designed to give pupils the language tools needed for schooling it is not necessary to teach all of the standard dialect but only those features which contrast with the nonstandard dialect. Furthermore, of those features that contrast, only those that are critical to communication need be taught.

Dialects of the same language have many features in common. A large number of features in a nonstandard dialect are identical to features in the standard dialect. None of these features need be taught--the pupil already knows them. It is only those things which are different in the standard dialect that must be added to the pupil's behavior.

Far from easing the task, this commonality of features makes learning the standard dialect extremely difficult. Languages function as closed systems. The features of a language operate only in the context of the rest of the language; they make no sense outside of the particular language system they are a part of. Each language is separate and different from any other in this sense. This is not strictly true for dialects of the same language, however. The systems seem to be only partly differentiated.

The commonality of some features confuses both teacher and learner. The learner, attuned to the nonstandard system, often fails to distinguish where the differences lie. He may feel that the differences are too subtle for him, or that it is impossible to learn the standard if one is not born to it. The teacher, though she may be bidialectal, may feel that it is only a slovenly attitude or "poor speech habits" that prevent the pupil from speaking in the standard dialect.

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[27] Thomas Creswell, "The Twenty Billion Dollar Misunderstanding," Social Dialects and Language Learning, Roger W. Shuy, Ed., (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964), p. 71.

She may even attribute the use of nonstandard language to some kind of perverse moral attitude held by the pupil.

Not all of the contrasting features of the standard dialect need be taught. There are many contrasts which do not hinder communication. An example of this is the post-vocalic /r/. The absence of this sound is considered a nonstandard feature in many areas. However, there are sections of the country where it is not used in standard speech. Neither the presence nor absence of post-vocalic /r/ seems to have a great effect on communication. Both pronunciations are used in mass media and are understood everywhere. Of course, in regions where post-vocalic /r/ is not a feature of the standard dialect, the question of teaching it does not come up. Whether to teach post-vocalic /r/ in regions where it is considered standard is a sociologic consideration and must be decided on the basis of whether or not "/r/-less" speech is socially acceptable.[28]

3. The learning of standard English should start as early in the pupil's education as possible.

Some educators have argued that children in the first few years of school should not be burdened with learning a new dialect. Rather, they should be given a chance to verbalize, communicate, express themselves, and develop their powers of reason in their native dialect. Only after this is accomplished should they be asked to learn standard English.[29] This seems impractical, however. In our public school systems today, reading (in standard English) is taught from the first grade and sometimes from kindergarten. Teachers, whatever their backgrounds, strive to conduct all lessons in standard English. Supplementary materials and teaching aids are all in standard English. If we are to take seriously the assertion made above that anyone expected to perform in a language must know it, then we are led to the conclusion that teaching it must begin as early as possible. Ultimate social and personal goals may not be hindered by a later start in standard dialect learning, but educational needs begin the first day the child comes to school.

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[28] Politzer, Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect, pp. 8-9.

[29] Loban, "Teaching Children Who Speak Social Class Dialects," p. 595.

There are other reasons for starting early. The sooner a child learns to control the standard dialect, the sooner he will be free to spend more time studying other curriculum areas, all of which are available, in the school context, only through the standard dialect. Although not clearly documented, there is some opinion that oral language forms are more easily learned by young children; native dialect interference is not so strong, social attitudes are not so well developed, and at such an early age standard dialect learning may take place through the child's initial language acquisition process.[30]

4. It seems appropriate to reiterate an assumption discussed above: If the school is conducted in standard English, children will have difficulty learning when they speak and understand only a nonstandard dialect.

5. To the extent that the general hypotheses and methods outlined in this report are successful in Hawaii, they can be expected to be useful elsewhere. Particulars of linguistic contrasts, lesson construction, and teaching must of course be adjusted to the situation in each different nonstandard dialect area.

General Research Hypotheses

The general hypothesis that generated and defined this study is that young (kindergarten through third grade) nonstandard dialect-speaking children can more effectively develop oral proficiency in a standard dialect through an educational treatment characterized by the following:

1. Focus on only those speech elements that are "contrastive" --i. e., an element produced by a linguistic contrastive analysis of the standard and nonstandard dialects, which identifies unique and contradictory aspects of the two dialects (see Appendix A for the contrastive analysis procedures and results);

2. Sequencing of the "target" contrasts (logically and empirically) over the school year and over successive grade levels;

3. Intensive short-period "drill" on target contrasts with the drill periods based on meaningful and interesting oral episodes, each

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[30] Crowley, Kiyosaki, "Proposal for a Research and Demonstration Project," p. 10.

of which embodies maximum use of the target contrast and minimum reference to unlearned contrasts;

4. Continual reinforcement of pupil control of targets outside of the scheduled "drill" periods and during study in other curriculum areas;

5. Emphasis on rewarding control of standard dialect rather than punishment of use of nonstandard dialect in situations where standard dialect speaking is appropriate; (a corollary of this, not pursued systematically in the present study, is the reinforcement of nonstandard dialect speaking in situations where the nonstandard dialect is appropriate);

6. The use of teachers who are good models of the standard dialect appropriate to the local scene.

A subsidiary hypothesis was that improvement in control of a standard dialect is associated with improved school achievement in all curricular areas in which oral proficiency is a parameter.[31]

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[31] For a discussion of this see Robert B. Ruddell, "Oral Language and the Development of Other Language Skills," Elementary English, Vol. XLIII (May 1966), pp. 489-498, 517.

II PROJECT SITE AND EVALUATION STRATEGY

Project Site

The site for the project was the Keaukaha Project of the Hawaiian Homes Commission, which is administered by the Department of Hawaiian Homes Lands, State of Hawaii. Hawaiian Homes Lands are designated locations, made available under the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act of 1920, for lease at $1.00 per year to "native Hawaiians," defined as "any descendant of not less than one-half part of the blood of the races inhabiting the Hawaiian Islands previous to 1778."

The history of this development is adequately covered in the several available published accounts of the early development of Hawaii. The Keaukaha Project, during the period of the present language project, comprised approximately 260 families totaling approximately 1,200 persons. The socio-economic status of residents tends to be below average, with the represented occupations largely semi- and unskilled. The general socio-educational status of these "homesteaders" is implied in the comparisons shown in Table II-1.

TABLE II-1: Educational Attainment, United States, Hawaii and Hawaiian Homes Homestead (Adapted from Social Aspects of the Hawaiian Homes Program, Legislative Reference Bureau Report No. 1c, 1964, State of Hawaii)

Educational Attainment	Percentage of Residents Over 25 Years of Age		
	1960 U.S.	1960 Hawaii	1963 Homestead
At least some college	16	17	2
12 years	25	30	19
9-11 years	19	16	37
8 years	18	11	33
5-7 years	14	12	
Less than 5 years	8	15	8
Median school years completed	11	11	9

Hawaii Islands Dialect ("Pidgin") is characteristic in the Project; children are largely dialect speakers, entering school with little control of standard English.

One of the public elementary schools of the State of Hawaii is located in the Keaukaha Project and ninety-five percent of the pupils enrolled in that school reside in the Hawaiian Homes Project. Hence, the school provided an unusually favorable location for the study herein described. The cooperation of school authorities, teachers, residents, and Hawaiian Homes officials was obtained easily.

Formation of Experimental and Control Groups

The Keaukaha Elementary School provides two classrooms for each of the grade levels relevant to this project: K-1-2-3. At the beginning of the 1965-66 school year, the school principal was asked to randomly assign entering pupils to the classrooms at each of these grade levels. He did so, selecting alternate pupils in the grade level rosters. However, some non-random reshuffling occurred because of family preferences regarding multiple kin in the same classroom and because of the policy of changing classrooms in the cases of pupils who were not promoted at the end of the previous school year. We felt that we should be satisfied with the result, since alternative "matching" procedures were impracticable given small classroom enrollments.

In February of that school year (2/14/66), we were able to assess the comparability of control and experimental classroom groups because of the routine administration of the CTMM in grades 1-2-3 and a special administration of the Metropolitan Readiness Test in the kindergarten classrooms. The results, in terms of medians for the language-relevant subtests, are shown in Table II-2. These data demonstrate a fairly comparable situation across experimental and control groups at each grade level with the exception of the kindergarten, where the "overallocation" of girls in the control classroom leads to a substantial difference between medians. While this was unexpected and unwelcomed, the situation was left undisturbed because of local considerations. As will be shown in Chapter VI, the differences are not significant.

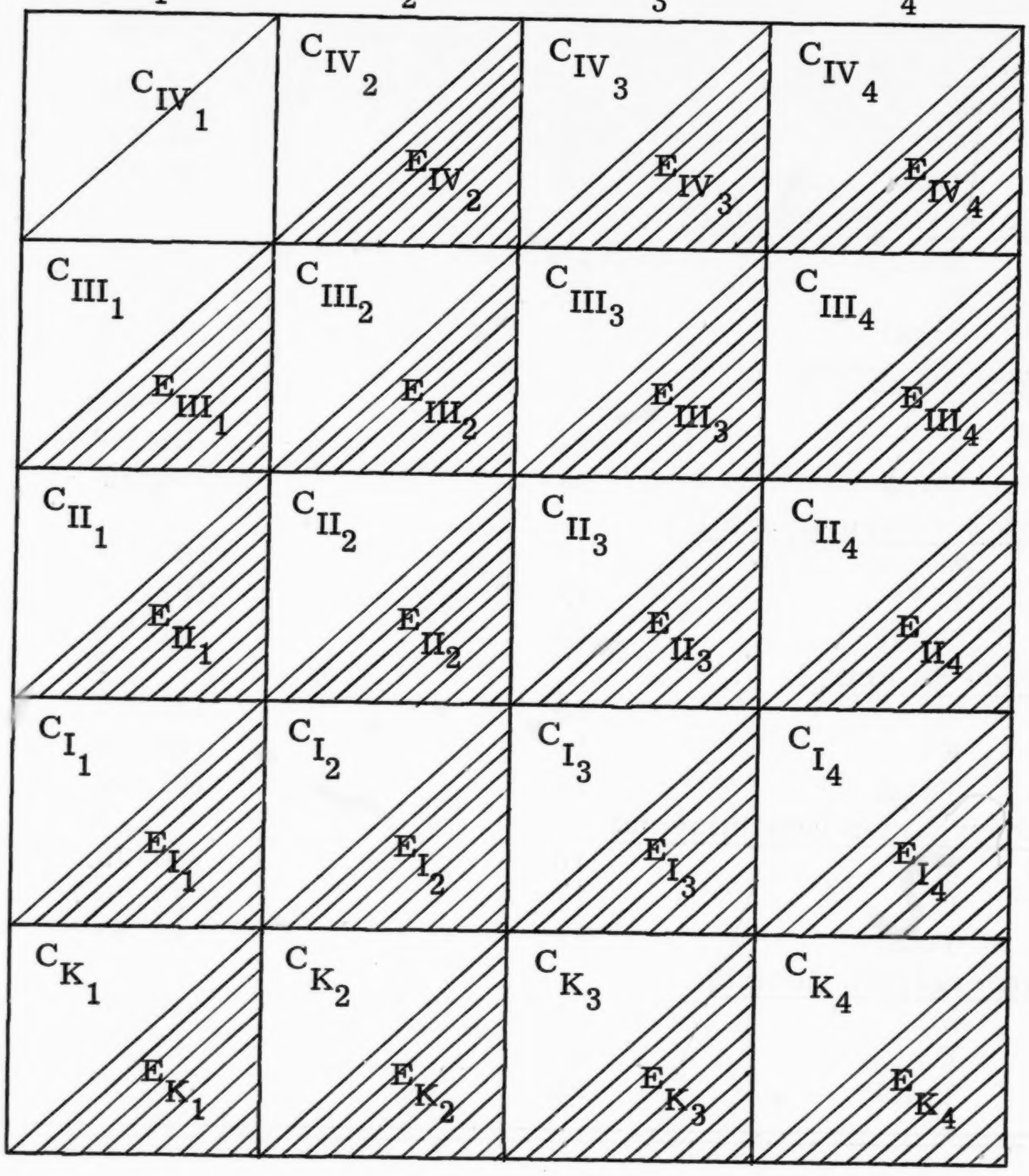
TABLE II-2: Comparison of Experimental and Control Groups, by Sex, Total, and Grade Level, in Terms of CTMM Language IQ (Grades 1-2-3) and Metropolitan Readiness Score (Kindergarten)

GROUP	No.	MEDIAN LANGUAGE IQ
Grade 1 Experimental		
M	10	92.00
F	11	93.75
Total	21	93.67
Grade 1 Control		
M	7	100.00
F	15	94.75
Total	22	95.50
Grade 2 Experimental		
M	15	94.00
F	12	82.50
Total	27	93.00
Grade 2 Control		
M	14	96.50
F	14	94.50
Total	28	94.50
Grade 3 Experimental		
M	13	102.00
F	12	102.33
Total	25	101.87
Grade 3 Control		
M	13	101.20
F	11	99.25
Total	24	101.50
Kindergarten Experimental		
M	10	40.00
F	11	43.00
Total	21	43.00
Kindergarten Control		
M	7	40.00
F	13	47.00
Total	20	46.50

The organization of all groups for the four-year period is shown graphically in Table II-2. Criterion testing (Oral Speech, CTMM, and CAT) occurred in each year for the groups beginning Project Year 1 as K, I, and IV, and the group beginning Project

Year 2 as K. Other Experimental groups were used in development and testing of instructional materials and as possible sources of information on effects of testing.

TABLE II-3: Schematic Representation of Experimental Situation



GRADE LEVEL	PROJECT YEARS 1	2	3	4
IV	C_{IV_1}	C_{IV_2} E_{IV_2}	C_{IV_3} E_{IV_3}	C_{IV_4} E_{IV_4}
III	C_{III_1} E_{III_1}	C_{III_2} E_{III_2}	C_{III_3} E_{III_3}	C_{III_4} E_{III_4}
II	C_{II_1} E_{II_1}	C_{II_2} E_{II_2}	C_{II_3} E_{II_3}	C_{II_4} E_{II_4}
I	C_{I_1} E_{I_1}	C_{I_2} E_{I_2}	C_{I_3} E_{I_3}	C_{I_4} E_{I_4}
K	C_{K_1} E_{K_1}	C_{K_2} E_{K_2}	C_{K_3} E_{K_3}	C_{K_4} E_{K_4}

C=control classes; E=experimental classes; subjects randomly assigned to classes at each grade level, Year 1.

Nature of Experimental Treatment

As the general research hypothesis (see Chapter I) states, the treatment comprises a multidimensional organization of targets, and sequenced and reinforced presentation of oral materials. The specific nature of these materials and the instructional techniques are detailed in Chapters IV and V and Appendix B. This experimental treatment was administered by the classroom teachers in each of the groups labeled "E" in Table II-3.

Nature of Control Treatment

The control groups ("C" in Table II-3) were subjected to the normal language arts program in the Keaukaha Elementary School. While the four teachers involved exhibited individual approaches to the teaching of language arts, the teaching and content was generally characteristic of K-3 programs in Hawaii. The policy of the school district obtained in these classes and may be described in terms of the following:

1. Time scheduled for language teaching activities in the different grades was as follows:
   a. Kindergarten: 30 minutes, language arts
   b. 1st grade: 30 minutes, spelling
      30 minutes, oral language
      60 minutes, reading
   c. 2nd and 3rd grades: 60 minutes, language arts
      60 minutes, reading

2. Texts used were the revised Ginn Basic Readers, 100 Edition, and accompanying workbooks, and the Macmillan Breaking the Spelling Barrier spelling series. The kindergarten used the Ginn Language Kit A during the final year of the project.

3. Up to 30 minutes per day in each grade were devoted to oral language activities recommended in the Hawaii State Department of Education Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Outline. Principal activities were: sharing of experiences, discussions, oral current events reports, pupil announcements, role playing, creative dramatics, and similar experiences. (In experimental classes these activities were partially replaced by project lesson sessions.)

4. The control group kindergarten and first grade classes viewed the educational television program "Talking Time," featuring oral participation and response by pupils, for 30 minutes per week during the final year of the project.

Systematic observation of teaching in both Experimental and Control groups was conducted by the project staff in order to define, de facto, the differences among teachers and between experimental and control conditions over the project period. (See Chapter V.)

III INSTRUMENTATION

The project purposes required measures for four parameters: (1) oral proficiency in standard dialect, (2) achievement in general language arts, (3) reading readiness (to estimate related entry skills among beginning kindergarten children), and (4) scholastic ability in the language area.

Measurement of Oral Proficiency

For the most part, the history of measurement of language proficiency has comprised the evaluation of ability to analyze, describe, or diagram the components of a written sentence, knowledge of grammar rules and usage, or skill at syllabication, spelling reading, pronouncing isolated consonant and vowel sounds, etc. All such assessment strategies were considered, but were judged inadequate for the measurement of the acquisition of a totally new and different dialect by non-native speakers of that dialect.

The speech proficiency rating scale developed by the Foreign Service Institute and used extensively and with apparent success in Peace Corps training, was also considered but judged to be too coarse a measure of changes taking place in the dialect learning of very young children.

The Speech Proficiency Analysis Test

Oral language was initially seen as comprising structured (and therefore, predictable) patterns of consonant, vowel, intonational, and stress sounds (the phonemic system), and of morphemic combinations and word arrangements (the grammatical system). It was assumed, at the beginning of the project, that a usable measure of oral proficiency can be obtained by determining the relative occurrence of these sounds and arrangements. On this assumption we initially developed a new measure of oral proficiency (SPAN) which was eventually not used in the project because of its time-cost factors but which is briefly described here since it may be of interest to professional workers in this field of interest. The test comprised four components of oral language: phonology, grammar, morphology, and complexity.

Phonological and Grammatical Dimensions of Oral Proficiency

What are some of the countable items, within the framework of oral speech response patterns already suggested, that might be used as indicators of proficiency in standard oral English? The most obvious, from the standpoint of structural linguistics, are those coordinated neuromuscular responses which reflect one's control of the two major structures of any language: the phonological and grammatical features of the language. Instances of producing phonemic units and arrangements, morphological classes and arrangements, as well as syntactical arrangements, can be enumerated. By dividing the result by a base representing the total "amount" of oral content, an index of oral proficiency in terms of relative occurrence can be obtained.[1]

Since there are certain features common to the two dialects, the number of phonological and grammatical features that require enumeration for the proficiency measure is less than the total number of features of which the language consists. Furthermore, it is not assumed that all known divergent items of structure be enumerated in order to obtain a valid measure. The enumeration of only a selection of items considered to be the most important, or most obvious, or those most highly correlated with overall proficiency, may be sufficient.

Among the criteria for selection of these representative features are (1) apparent high frequency of occurrence in the standard dialect, (2) ease of elicitation, and (3) ease of identification and enumeration.

Morphophonemic Dimension of Oral Proficiency

Another index of the dependent variable--the morphophonemic system--is related to the two indices already described and was decided upon as a result of complications encountered in certain of the phonological and grammatical categories. It was found, for example, that, for all speakers of Hawaii Islands Dialect learning standard English, the degree of control of phonological features affected morphophonological and, thus, grammatical proficiency. (Morphophonemics is defined as the study of the convergence of phonological and grammatical categories.) In order to give score credit for a youngster's developing grammatical control even when the phonemic shape (pronunciation) of an allomorph is divergent, it was decided to incorporate the morphophonemic category as an additional proficiency index.

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[1] See as an example of a statistical measure of relative occurrence of grammatical structures: J. J. Lamberts, "How Dead is Congruence?" in A.H. Marckwardt (Ed.), Studies in Languages and Linguistics, English Language Institute, Ann Arbor, 1964.

For example, in the production of a form such as /dogz/, the Hawaii Islands Dialect speaker who is moving toward proficiency in standard English, by producing the sequence /gz/, is displaying control of two criterion patterns--one phonological and one grammatical. The decision was made to count also as grammatical a response of the type /dogs/ where the grammatical concept of plurality is obvious but control of English morphophonemic structure is lacking.

Thus, a distinction is made between only grammatical control in morphophonemic structures and combination grammatical-phonological control in the same structures.

The Complexity Dimension

The notion of complexity of phrase and clause structure as a potential index of oral proficiency was suggested by the work of Professor Loban in which oral language proficiency is partly described by the ratio: "words per communication unit," where a communication unit is roughly equivalent to a predication.[2]

Complexity rests on the proposition, often applied to language, that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Consequently, when a language learner can string together a greater number of words in a predication (made up of phrase and clause units) and "manage" the resulting structure and meaning, he must be adjudged more proficient. The phrases and clauses of the more proficient speaker of English consist of more words, and his speech is thereby more complex.

Stated in another way, with every additional word or morpheme in a predication there is more than one possible additional arrangement, so that the potential kinds of arrangements in a predication increase in greater than numerical progression. This is considered a dimension of complexity, the increase of which Loban has shown to be correlated with age-grade level and general language maturity (the absence of certain divergent forms).

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[2] Walter D. Loban, The Language of Elementary School Children, (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 6.

The Scoring Procedure

Based on the foregoing propositions and assumptions, the following scoring procedures were adopted.

1. A subject's recorded interview, consisting of his oral responses to oral and visual stimuli administered by a teacher, is transcribed phonemically.
2. All mazes, garbles, false starts, stutterings, etc., are struck from the transcription.[3]
3. A second transcription of the subject's responses--minus the mazes, garbles, false starts, and stutterings--is made for the purpose of measuring the length of the child's responses in centimeters of typed transcription. This transcription, made only for the purpose of determining the base (denominator) for the computation of the index ratios of that particular speech sample, has no other function in the measurement process. Number of words, or number of morphemes, were originally considered as good potential bases. However, it was finally concluded that any measure of the length of the speech sample provides a valid base for such ratios. Typing on a standardized format and measuring the total length of the typewritten lines seems to be the most convenient.
4. Communication units are marked off and enumerated and the ratio of communication units to length of speech sample is computed. This complexity score, the number of communication units per 100 centimeters, is an inverse index of complexity.
5. Phonemic divergences are enumerated and the ratio of enumerated phonemes to length of speech sample is computed. This is the phonology score, an inverse index.
6. The occurrences of grammatical criterion responses are enumerated. These responses are those on the select list described earlier. The ratio of enumerated grammatical responses to the length of the speech sample is computed, producing the grammar score, a direct index of proficiency.
7. All occurrences of morpheme variations (allomorphs) that are determined by contiguous sounds are enumerated. (See "Morphophonemic Dimension of Oral Proficiency" above.) A ratio of the enumerated allomorphs to the length of the speech sample is then com-

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[3] Loban, The Language of Elementary School Children, p. 8.

puted. This is the grammar-phonology score, a direct index of proficiency.

The entire procedure has been called "speech proficiency analysis" and labeled SPAN.

Objectivity, Independence, and Grade Discrimination

The criterion test was subjected to three psychometric analyses during the fall of 1966. Using thirty subjects at the kindergarten level and an equal number at grade IV, the test was examined for (1) inter-scorer agreement (objectivity), (2) inter-scale correlations, and (3) grade level discrimination.

(1) Objectivity

Each of the thirty oral language samples obtained at kindergarten and fourth grade levels was scored independently by two trained staff members, using the scoring procedures previously agreed upon. Thus, two sets of scores were derived for each of the four sub-scales of SPAN and at each grade level. The correlations between these two sets of scores were determined by means of the Pearson Product-Moment Coefficient. The results, summarized in Table III-1, show that the scoring procedure is remarkably objective at both grade levels and for all four scales.

TABLE III-1: Pearson Zero-Order Correlations Between Two Independent Scorers; Grades K and IV With N=30 at Each Level (Objectivity Check)

SPAN Scale	r Grade K	r Grade IV
Complexity	.997	.979
Phonology	.987	.984
Grammar-Phonology	.963	.965
Grammar	.984	.969

An additional measure of objectivity was the comparisons of means and standard deviations for the independently produced scores. These data, shown in Tables II and III, further suggest fairly good objectivity of scoring.

TABLE III-2: Independent Scorers Compared in Terms of Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for SPAN Scales: Grade K, N=30

SPAN SCALE	Scorer A		Scorer B	
	$\overline{X}$	S	$\overline{X}$	S
Complexity	29.55	6.20	29.54	6.13
Phonology	33.38	8.78	32.11	9.09
Grammar-Phonology	3.05	1.86	2.68	1.96
Grammar	37.89	6.26	37.61	6.37

TABLE III-3: Independent Scorers Compared in Terms of Means and Standard Deviations for SPAN Scales: Grade IV, N=30

SPAN SCALE	Scorer A		Scorer B	
	$\overline{X}$	S	$\overline{X}$	S
Complexity	18.99	3.30	19.13	3.33
Phonology	21.72	6.53	20.98	6.42
Grammar-Phonology	5.23	1.84	4.85	1.80
Grammar	52.54	4.36	51.94	4.52

The specific points of scorer differences have since been identified and have resulted in procedural refinements which undoubtedly will produce fewer scorer differences than appear in Table III-3.

(2) Inter-Scale Correlations

A critical psychometric question is the degree to which the a priori assumption of scale independence is empirically justified. This question is resolved by the data of Table III-4, which comprises a matrix of the zero-order Pearson coefficients of correlation among the four SPAN scales at each grade level.

TABLE III-4: Intercorrelations Among Four SPAN Scales for Kindergarten (Above Diagonal) and Grade IV (Below Diagonal); N=30 at Each Level

SCALE	C	Ph.	Gr-Ph.	Gr.
Complexity		-.326	.119	-.339
Phonology	.129		-.556 **	-.419 *
Grammar-Phonology	.190	-.503 **		.417 *
Grammar	-.408 *	-.183	.323	

*P .05
**P .01

It can be seen that the largest coefficients are quite modest and most coefficients fail to reach conventional significance levels when tested with the Fisher Z-transformation (for .05, "r" must be .36; for .01, "r" must be .46). Hence, four separate scores seem to be in order. The SPAN appears to offer measures for four relatively different aspects of oral language proficiency.

(3) Grade Level Discrimination

On the assumption that normal progress from grade K to IV is associated with improvement in oral English proficiency, it is reasonable to expect the scales of SPAN to distinguish between these two grade levels. As Table III-5 shows, this requirement is clearly met. The differences are in the expected directions and significant at beyond the .001 level (t-tests, independent means).

TABLE III-5: SPAN Scale Means and Standard Deviations for Grades K and IV (N=30 at Each Level)

SPAN SCALE	K		IV			
	$\overline{X}$	S	$\overline{X}$	S	t	P
Complexity	29.55	6.20	18.99	3.30	8.15	.0001
Phonology	33.38	8.78	21.72	6.53	5.85	.0001
Grammar-Phonology	3.05	1.86	5.23	1.83	4.57	.0001
Grammar	37.89	6.26	52.54	4.36	10.61	.0001

As the foregoing data show, SPAN is an adequate measure of oral speech proficiency. However, it is much too costly to present as a practical instrument for use in public schools on a large scale. The scoring is time-consuming and requires the use of a trained linguist with phonemic transcription competence, and also requires the typing of all protocols in standard format. Accordingly we turned our attention to the development of a more economical procedure with equivalent validity and reliability.

The Speech Proficiency Rating Scale

The devising of a rating scale was accompanied by an improvement in the method for generating and recording criterion speech samples from the pupils. The latter will be described first.

Eliciting Speech Samples

After some alternative explorations, it was decided to elicit and record criterion speech samples in the following manner:

1. A local artist was employed to draw several sets of "picture stories" (see samples, reduced in size, Plates III-1 and III-2) of local relevance to children in Hawaii, each set consisting of approximately twelve frames;

2. A 20- to 30-minute speech sampling was taken and tape-recorded for each child, using trained interviewers, by eliciting a "story" from one or more of the "picture stories." (These were first used in the October, 1967 sampling.) The "picture stories" proved effective in eliciting relatively spontaneous samples of oral English. Speech samplings were obtained from the subject children at the following times:

TABLE III-6: Schedule of Speech Samplings

DATES	GRADES
May, 1966	K, 1st, 4th
Oct., 1966	K, 1st, 2nd
May, 1967	K, 1st, 2nd
Oct., 1967	K, 1st, 2nd, 3rd
May, 1968	K, 1st, 2nd, 3rd
Oct., 1968	K, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th
May, 1969	K, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th

Interview Procedure Manual

The following instructions controlled the speech sampling procedure:

EXHIBIT III-1: Interview Procedure Manual

Interview Procedure Manual for Obtaining Speech Samples

I. Goal and purpose of interviews.

  A. The goal of the interviews is to obtain a speech sample of the child's standard English repertoire.
  B. The purpose of obtaining the speech sample is to furnish data for a rating of the child's proficiency in spoken standard English.

II. Criteria for stimuli.

  A. The stimuli should elicit a free flow of self-directed speech.
    1. Verbal stimuli must be appropriate to the visual stimuli.
    2. Stimuli must be appropriate to the child's age and grade level.
    3. The stimulus, as far as possible, should not provide a direct model for the response.

4. The recorded speech sample should cover a period of not less than 15 minutes and not more than 25 minutes for each interview.

III. Proper procedure during interview.

A. Check technical aspects of recording.

1. Interview area should contain as few distractions as possible.
2. Minimize outside noise and distractions by closing windows and doors when possible. Be aware of external noises, such as airplanes, machines, etc. If necessary, momentarily halt the interview and turn off the recorder.
3. Be sure the recorder is plugged into the electrical outlet and the recorder is turned on.
4. Be sure the microphone is plugged into the recorder. Place the microphone in a strategic position or have the child hold the microphone if necessary. The microphone should be 6 to 8 inches from the child's mouth.
5. The recorder and microphone should be on separate, unconnected surfaces, and both should be cushioned.
6. Set the tone control on balanced tone, and the speed control on 3. 75.
7. Set the volume so that the recording can be heard with ease when played back at level 5 to 7. You will have to experiment; with most machines you may set recording volume between 4 and 5.
8. Do not start at the very beginning of the tape. Spin the reel around three times before beginning to record.
9. Before beginning, check to see that there is sufficient amount of tape left to complete the interview. If uncertain, flip the tape reel to the second side or use a new reel.
10. At the end of the interview spot check to see that the recording was a good one before dismissing the child.
11. Write the number of the interview, the date, and the initials of the interviewer on the card in the tape box.

B. Use standard classroom English at all times.

C. Create a congenial, yet formal, atmosphere for the child through your tone of voice and manner. It is desirable for the interviewer to chat informally (but in standard English) with a child before beginning the actual recording of the interview.

D. Be sure to identify the interview by number at the beginning of the recording.

E. Give the child ample time to make responses before presenting the next stimulus. Do not interrupt the child while he is in the process of making a statement, except to terminate the interview.

F. If necessary, remind the child to speak loudly.

G. Use questions similar to those suggested in the Appendix to stimulate the child when the visual cues do not elicit a free flow of speech.

IV. Training procedure.

A. Interviewers are to be acquainted with the purpose of the oral interviews. Emphasize that what is wanted, ideally, is a sample of the free, unprompted speech of the child. Explain the importance of the data gathered from the interviews to the research aspect of the project. Explain that because interviews cannot be duplicated or redone, the first attempt is extremely important.

B. Acquaint the interviewer with the proper procedure during the interview. Stress the importance of adhering to the practices and standards set up for the interviews.

C. Listen to, analyze, and discuss actual interviews. Purposes:

   1. To illustrate possible types of errors.
   2. To illustrate proper or especially effective techniques.
   3. To illustrate technical errors that may mar the interview.

D. Run through the interview procedure with role playing.

   1. Choose different types of interview situations:
      a) Extremely quiet child.
      b) Extremely loquacious child.
      c) Average child.
   2. Discuss and evaluate the techniques of the interviewer and the effects on the child.

E. Each interviewer is to listen to some of her own interviews, when available, and evaluate her performance. She is to discuss with the group any resulting insights.

V. Methods for quality control.

A. A panel of project staff members will listen to recorded interviews selected at random and assess the necessity for further training in interviewing procedure and technique.
B. Interviewers are to spot-check their recorded interviews and listen to some complete interviews selected at random. If possible, another staff member will listen at the same time, and discuss any pertinent points with the interviewer.
C. The Research Methodologist or Consultant who visits the project will be invited to listen to randomly selected tapes and give an evaluation of recording techniques and results.

APPENDIX: Specific suggestions for interviewing.

A. The visual stimuli are stories told in pictures, like comic strips without words. The child should be told that all the pictures together tell a story. He should be given a chance to look at the set of pictures before he starts talking. Some children may not be aware of the left-to-right, top-to-bottom arrangement of the pictures. Be sure to explain where the story begins and where it ends.
B. Here are possible remarks by an interviewer (after the congenial atmosphere has been set up.)

"Here are some pictures I want you to look at. It's a story without any words. It's like a comic. Do you ever read the comics in the paper? We begin here and go all the way this way until we come to the end here. When you're ready to tell me the story, I'm going to ask you to talk as loud as you can into this microphone. Afterwards, I'll let you listen to your voice. Take a good look and see if you can make up a story. Tell me all you can about the pictures: what's happening, what you think happened before, and what you think might happen next.
Are you ready?
Remember to speak nice and loud."

C. Some children will speak freely and fluently. Others will be very shy and quiet, or they may be frightened. The interviewer may have to provide further oral stimulation to get responses from some of these children. The interviewer should remember that the desired ideal is for a sample of free, self-directed, unprompted speech. The best situation would be for the child to do all of the talking during the interview. The following suggested questions may help the quiet child to speak:

"Tell me more."
"Tell me more about that picture."
"What about that?" or "Tell me about that."
(While pointing to some part of the picture.)
"What else do you think happened?/will happen?"
"Why?"
"What do you think they are saying?/ thinking?"
"What would you do?" "Why?"
"How does she/he feel?" "How do you know?"
"What do you think will happen next?"
--and similar questions.

The interviewer must beware. It is easy to set up a pattern of response early in the interview which consists of only questions from the interviewer and short, one-word or one-sentence answers by the child. If carried throughout the interview, this would invalidate the data. As quickly as possible, the interviewer should maneuver the quiet child into free, connected speech.

D. At the end of each set of pictures the interviewer may possibly lengthen the child's response time by asking questions that relate to the child's own experience with similar events. For example:

"Have you ever gone fishing (etc.)?"
"Do you have a pet, too?"
"What would your mother say if that happened?"
"Do you know someone who did that?"
"Tell me about your toy truck (etc.)."
"Did you ever have this happen to you?"
"What happened?"

Development of Rating Scale

On the basis of staff conferences and advice from other experts, it was decided to develop a seven-point rating scale for "overall proficiency," "grammatical proficiency," and "phonological proficiency." The scale is anchored, at one end, by "exclusively or almost exclusively Hawaii Islands Dialect (i.e., "Pidgin") and, at the other, by "exclusively or almost exclusively Standard English," where "Standard English" is defined as the speech of an educated native of Hawaii --or "Hawaiian Standard English." The specific definitions for each of the seven scale points is shown on the rating scale form, which follows below:

TABLE III-7: The Hawaii Scale for Rating Speech Proficiency

Tape Code:______ Date: ____________ Rater: __________________

Overall: 1 - - - 2 - - - 3 - - - 4 - - - 5 - - - 6 - - - 7

Grammar: 1 - - - 2 - - - 3 - - - 4 - - - 5 - - - 6 - - - 7

Phonology: 1 - - - 2 - - - 3 - - - 4 - - - 5 - - - 6 - - - 7

1. Exclusively or almost exclusively HID.
   This person's speech could be characterized as "good Pidgin," or (depending on one's point of view), "the worst sort of Pidgin." This person would have difficulty in communicating easily with non-HID speakers.

2. Essentially HID but with some identifiable modifications in the direction of SE.
   This person's speech could clearly be characterized as more HID than SE. However, contrasting SE features are identifiably present. This person may have some difficulty in communicating easily with non-HID speakers.

3. Tends to be characterized by HID but with substantial modification in the direction of SE.
   This person's speech probably is more HID than SE. He controls several contrasting SE features although this control may not be consistent.

4. Not possible to say whether the tendency of this person's speech is toward HID or SE; both are present equally.

5. Tends to be characterized by SE but with substantial HID elements.
This person's speech probably is more SE than HID. He uses several HID features although this use may not be consistent.

6. Essentially SE but with some identifiable HID elements.
This person's speech could clearly be characterized as more SE than HID. However, HID features are easily identifiable. He uses more HID features than the "Hawaiian Standard English" speaker. (See #7.)

7. Exclusively or almost exclusively SE.
This person's speech could be characterized as "Hawaiian Standard English." His speech would be accepted as standard for all normal purposes (even though it may be apparent, due to infrequent but noticeable use of Hawaiian English features, that his standard English was learned in Hawaii, not in the mainland.)

HID = Hawaii Islands Dialect (of English)
SE = Standard English

A group of Hawaii teachers, each having command of Hawaii Standard English and some command of the Hawaii Islands Dialect (Pidgin) were put through several training sessions in rating recorded speech samples. Most of this group quickly reached a usable criterion of agreement in ratings (maximum range of one-half a scale point) and was re-structured until eleven raters were defined and committed to rate all speech samples.

Using all eleven raters and seven-minute samples of recorded speech protocols from ten children at kindergarten and ten at third grade levels, we conducted several analyses of the ratings. For this purpose we broke each speech sample into three segments in order to analyze possible non-uniformity of response within each speech sample.

In general the Pearson product moment correlations among the various aspects of the data indicated that the scale could be applied with tolerable reliability to the same child's same speech over time (segment 1-2) and to the same child's different speech (segment 2-3). This result, of course, also held for the final combination of different speech, different time (segment 1-3).

The correlations for the three segments across scales are shown in Table III-8:

TABLE III-8: Zero-Order Pearson Correlations Between Scale Segments

Segment 1-2	.834
Segment 1-3	.850
Segment 2-3	.788

The magnitude of these correlations supports the supposition that minimally trained raters can consistently place various speech samples on the scale over time and within speakers.

The next question is the relationship of the various scales to one another. Viewing the correlations among scales over all possible speech segments yields the following table:

TABLE III-9: Zero-Order Pearson Correlations Among Scales

Segment:	1, 2, 3	2, 3
SCALE		
overall-grammar	.970	.968
overall-phonology	.973	.962
grammar-phonology	.950	.935

These correlations are much too high to leave a doubt about the dependence of the three scales. This feeling continues as the same correlations are computed for each speech sample.

TABLE III-10: Zero-Order Pearson Correlations Among Scales for Each Speech Sample Segment

Sample:	1	2	3
SCALE			
overall-grammar	.975	.971	.941
overall-phonology	.982	.967	.957
grammar-phonology	.961	.940	.932

While the immediate conclusion from these data is that the scales largely duplicate one another, it is felt that there may be profit in retaining the three scales. One reason for this is that in an evaluation of protocols from 157 children the following correlations were obtained:

TABLE III-11: Zero-Order Pearson Correlations Among Scales for a Sample of 157 Children

SCALE	
overall-grammar	.963
overall-phonology	.699
grammar-phonology	.681

Here, it is apparent that "phonology" is including something not in grammar. Retaining the three scales, then, may prove useful. Greater emphasis on judging each category separately could help the raters maintain the independence of the "phonology" category and, perhaps, add more of this aspect to the "overall" rating.

In summary, we feel that we have produced a scale sufficiently reliable and relevant for use in rating speech proficiency at early grade levels.

Scoring and Rating Procedures

For the purpose of obtaining a score for each child, three raters evaluated a seven-minute sample of his taped speech and the three ratings for each scale dimension were averaged (mean), thus producing a mean rating for "overall speech," "phonology," and "grammar."

EXHIBIT III-2: Instructions for Raters

INSTRUCTIONS FOR RATERS

I. OBJECTIVES:

The goal is to rate the absence or presence of Hawaii Islands Dialect in the speech sample along three different dimensions according to the scale point definitions. The dimensions are grammar, phonology, and over-all speech.

II. METHODS:

1. Three raters in a panel will, independently and without

consultation, rate a speech sample at the same time.

2. Raters will listen to a speech sample and rate it on the three scales provided on the score sheet. The rating will be indicated by a circle around one of the numbered ratings or one of the half-way points on the line.
3. Raters will evaluate the speech sample in terms of the child's command and control of standard American English by taking note of specific examples of his command and control of grammar, phonology, and over-all speech. An average of the child's ability in the specific area can be formulated from this.
   EXAMPLE: (Grammar: past-tense form)
   If a child uses "wen buy" at times but uses "bought" at other times, the child can be said to have "bought" in his repertoire and should be credited for this. If the same child, however, consistently uses "wen stop," "wen run," etc., throughout the speech sample, then it can be concluded that he has a weak command of the standard past-tense forms. In other words, the fact that he has the standard past-tense form "bought" in his repertoire is a plus factor, but only as far as that particular verb form is concerned. It must be weighed along with his lack of standard past-tense forms for other verbs before a general conclusion about his ability to handle these forms can be arrived at. The same holds true for phonology.

III. CAUTIONARY NOTES:

1. Ratings must not be discussed or revealed during a rating session. After the ratings for one session are made and recorded, raters may discuss their ratings and the reasons for assigning them. Ratings may not be changed after they have been recorded.
2. Each speech sample should be rated independently in terms of the scale point definitions and not in terms of how one child compares with another. (To the extent possible, raters will be furnished speech samples that are grouped by age levels.)
3. Ratings should not be based on maturity in:
   a) Creativity.
   b) Idea content.
   c) Vocabulary.
   d) Logical development or organization.
   e) Fluency.
      1) If the child is not responsive, i.e., the sampling is insufficient, he should not be marked down for it, but given a rating on the basis of what he did say.

2) If the child has some speech difficulty such as lisping, mumbling, baby talk, to the extent possible, the ratings should not reflect this.

f) The greatest difficulties in rating have been faced when one or both of the following situations have occurred (they are not necessarily clearly separated).

1) Child's marked shift in the manner of speaking--the shift from stilted to natural speech, or vice versa.

2) Child's marked shift in control of standard--from natural but controlled speech to excited, spontaneous burst of speech, or vice versa.

In both instances, the command he does have in both situations should be considered and the marked change *per se* should not unduly influence the rating. On the whole, then, a clearer evaluation of the child's total speech can be reached if the shifts are balanced off and the possibility of isolated instances coloring the total evaluation is avoided.

Measurement of Language Ability

For the purpose of obtaining an estimate of language ability the *California Test of Mental Maturity* was administered in February of each year in grades I, II, III, and IV, using "Level 1" in the first two grades and "Level 1-H" in the latter two. This test was chosen because it is part of the regular school district testing program. For the purpose of obtaining a similar (though coarser) estimate for kindergarten pupils, the *Metropolitan Readiness Test* (Form R) was administered at that grade level in May of each year.

Measurement of Language Achievement

The purposes of the project included an assessment of possible effects of improved speech proficiency on general language achievement. Accordingly, we obtained "Reading" and "Language" scores for each pupil from the *California Achievement Test*, administered in grades I, II, III, and IV in April (May in 1968) of each year, using the "Lower Primary" forms in grade I, "Upper Primary" in grades II, III, and IV. The *California Achievement Test* was used, again, because it comprised part of the regular district testing program.

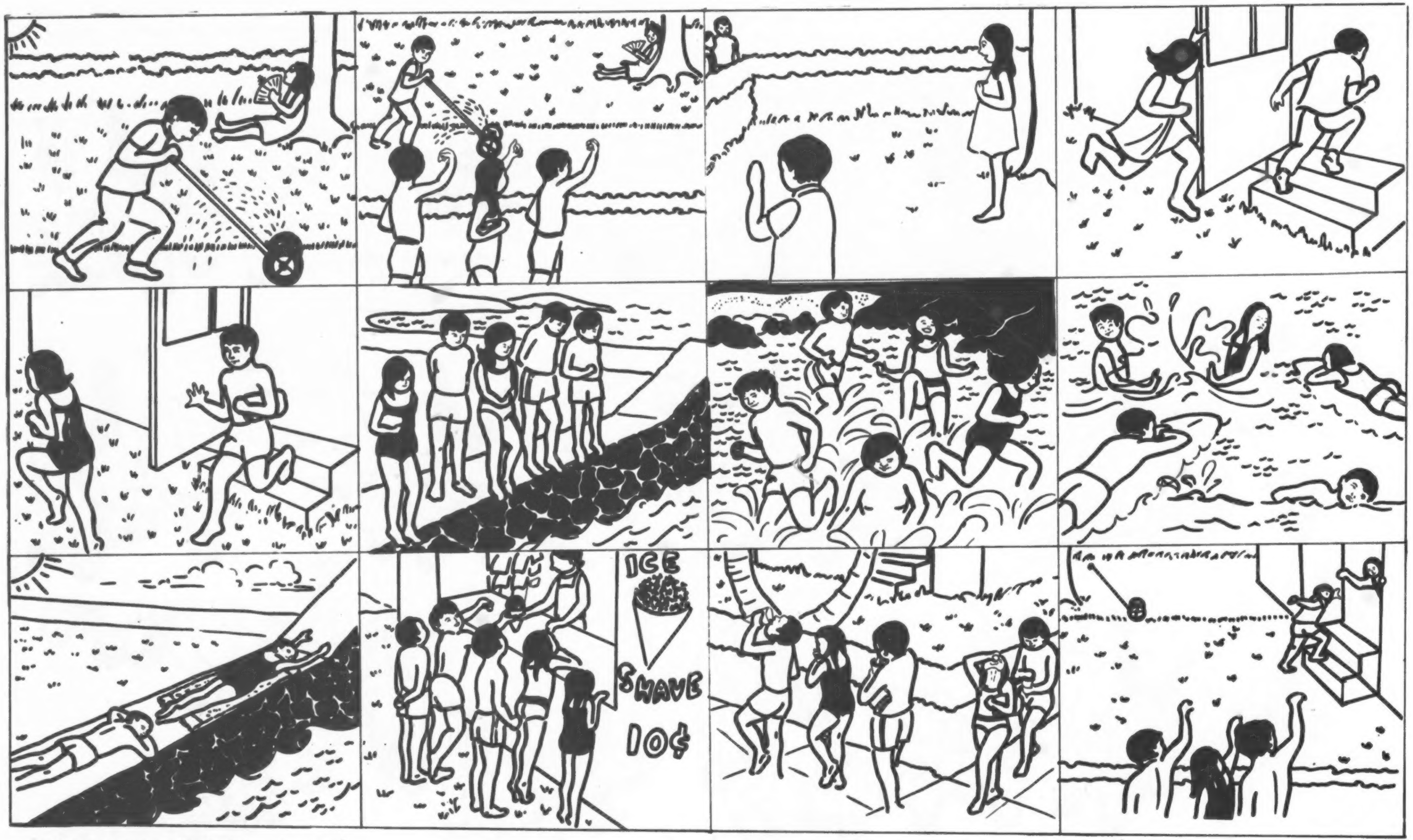
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PLATE III—1. Sample of picture story used to elicit speech samples.

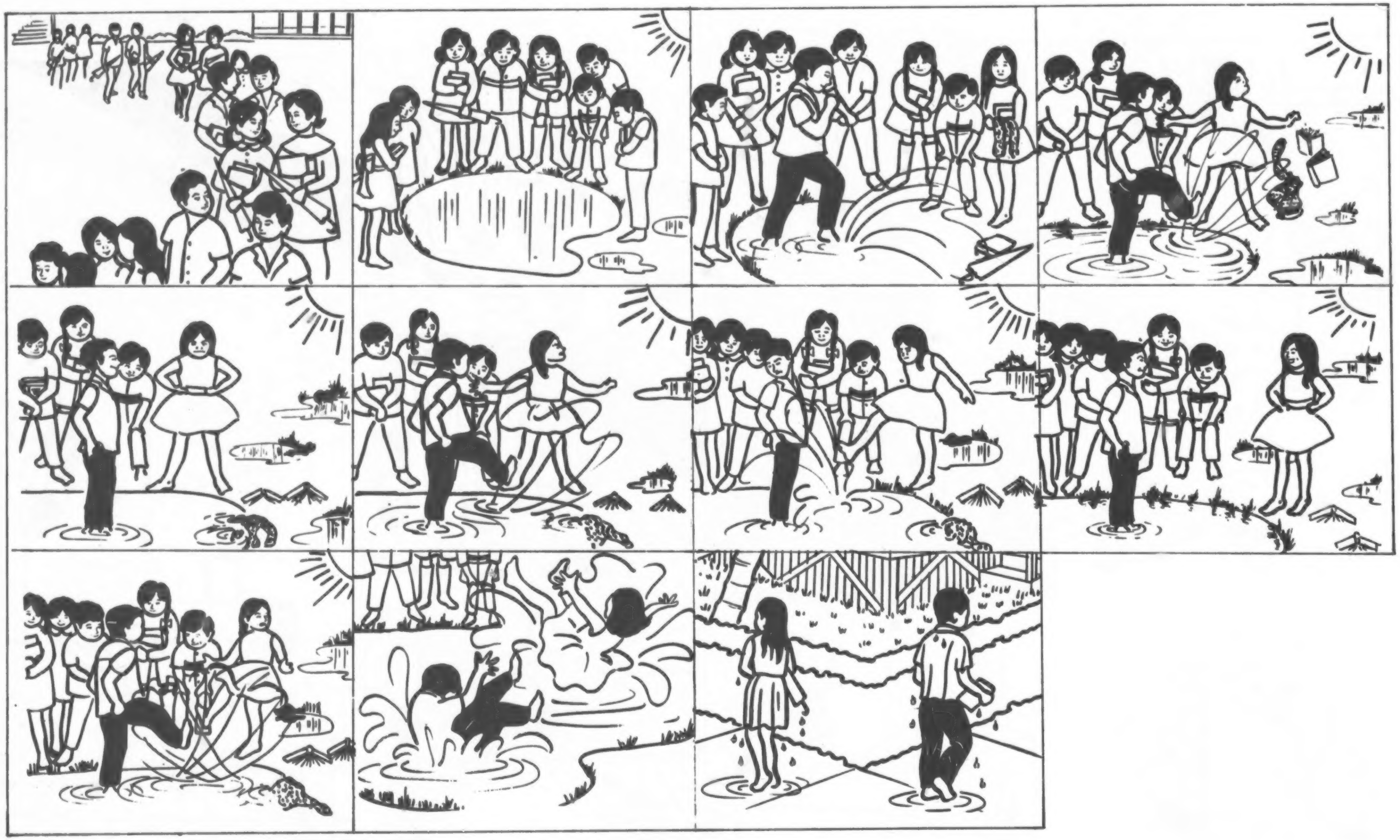

PLATE III—2. Sample of picture story used tp elicit speech samples.

IV DEVELOPMENT OF LESSON MATERIALS

The lesson materials were developed to test a program of teaching based on the assumptions and hypotheses discussed in Chapter I.

Determination of Teaching Targets

The first task was the determination of just what features of standard English were to be taught. This determination was made from the differences, or linguistic contrasts, between the Hawaii Islands Dialect and standard English. Those features of standard English identified as contrasting with the Hawaii Islands Dialect were considered for inclusion in the lessons as the teaching targets of the project curriculum.

The contrastive linguistic analysis of Hawaii Islands Dialect and standard English was performed by the University of Hawaii. The analysis could not be completed until 22 months after the project started. However, the project staff wished to begin writing and teaching lessons the first year, so they were forced to turn elsewhere at first for information about contrasts. The literature on the Hawaii Islands Dialect was examined and used as a source for determing contrasts.[1] The staff members conducted preliminary field work to supplement this information.[2] The contrastive analysis received from the University added to the knowledge of contrasts and corroborated this previously gathered information. The contrastive analysis report appears as Appendix A.

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[1] Doris C. Ching, "Effects of a Six Month Remedial English Program on Oral, Writing and Reading Skills of Third Grade Hawaiian Bilingual Children," The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 32 (1963), pp. 133-145.

John E. Reinecke, "Language and Dialect in Hawaii," Unpub. M.A. thesis, University of Hawaii (1935).

Laura L. Shun, "A Study of Selected Bilingual Speakers of English in the Hawaiian Islands," Unpub. M.A. thesis, University of Hawaii (June, 1961).

[2] Dale P. Crowley, Robert O. H. Petersen, "Language Learning Goals Defined by Divergences of Hawaiian Islands Dialect From Standard English," (Hilo: Dept. of Education, State of Hawaii, Mimeo., 1966).

Not all contrasts interfere with communication enough to be included as teaching targets. For example, the lack of post-vocalic /r/ is an easily recognizable feature of Hawaii Islands Dialect. It was not included in the list of teaching targets on the grounds that it is not crucial to communication, and, although there is no clear sociologic information on this point, it seems not to be a prestige factor in standard English in Hawaii.

An example of a contrast which is crucial to communication is the progressive verb construction. (He is eating, in standard English, is equivalent to He eating, He stay eating, or He stay eat, in Hawaii Islands Dialect.) This construction is so important in standard English that communication may be severely hindered if a speaker lacks it. Such contrasts became teaching targets.

There are some features of the Hawaii Islands Dialect that are evidently in contrast with standard English only part of the time;[3] that is, the standard English versions of these features are often under the control of school pupils when speaking in the classroom or a similar environment. For example, information from the contrastive analysis indicated that word final voiced consonants would be pronunciation problems for children in class. However, classroom teaching experiences indicated that most children had very little trouble pronouncing word final /b/ and /g/ and these were eliminated as targets from the lessons.

In the first year of the project it was felt that the grammatical component of speech is so important that all efforts should be applied to producing lesson materials based on grammatical contrasts. Furthermore, it was felt that standard pronunciation would be learned by pupils in the course of exposure to and practice of models of standard English without specially prepared lessons focusing on phonological targets. This position was later seen to be inadequate, however--the rationale for incorporating learning targets in lessons applies equally

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[3] For a technical discussion of this situation see: Stanley M. Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation: The Case of Hawaiian English," Pidginization and Creolization of Languages, Dell H. Hymes, Ed., (Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, forthcoming).

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[3] For a technical discussion of this situation see: Stanley M. Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation: The Case of Hawaiian English," *Pidginization and Creolization of Languages*, Dell H. Hymes, Ed., (Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, forthcoming).

Sequencing of Targets

No system of inherent relationships was used for sequencing the learning targets into lessons. The project teachers determined the sequential arrangement of targets in lesson material based on their observations of the pupils' needs as the school year progressed. Thus, a process of repeated revision based on the teachers' advice resulted in the target sequence exhibited in the lessons in Appendix B (see pages 141, 289, 423, and 561).

Since several of the phonological targets were crucial to the use of certain grammatical targets, the sequencing of phonological targets was largely based on integration with grammar lessons. The details of the sequence are different for each grade since the number of grammar lessons per step and the sequence of target introduction within the step differs for each grade. The phonological target sequence will be found in detail in Appendix B (see pages 40-43).

In writing grammar lessons, an attempt was made to keep each lesson as free as practicable of examples of targets which were to be introduced later in the sequence, so as to more clearly focus upon the targets introduced and reduce pupil confusion. Because of this attempt, it seemed necessary to introduce more than one target in the first step of the grammar lesson sequence in order not to restrict the variety of language features in the lesson beyond reasonableness. Lumped together were four targets which would, along with noncontrasting constructions already within the pupils' control, allow the construction of lessons that would make reasonable sense, be interesting, and allow for natural phrasing and flexibility in content. It turned out, however, that to make lessons compact enough to be manageable, both as to presentation time and contextual theme, two or more lessons were needed for the first group of grammatical targets. This arrangement set the pattern for lesson grouping throughout the sequence. The grammar targets were sequenced by groups or steps, and each group of targets was embedded in two to five lessons.

Another problem in the development of lesson material had to do with the division of the target sequence among the four years of teaching. A possible division would have kindergarten pupils studying the first three groups of targets, the first grade the next three, and so on. However, there were two arguments against this: 1) To maintain interest and learning efficiency, pupils need more challenges and variety in a year's oral language program than will be provided by only ten or twelve targets; 2) During the summer vacation, the pupils are in a more or less complete Hawaii Islands Dialect environment. Most of their summer experience militates against the retention of the standard language behavior recently practiced in school and under weak control at best. Hawaii Islands Dialect is reinforced and standard English is not. Indeed, it may be rewarding for children to avoid the use of the standard dialect. Pupils often return to school with little retention of the previous year's learning.

Instead of integrating planned and sequenced review into each succeeding year's lesson sequences, the project staff elected to present the full sequence of targets to the pupils each year. A separate set of lessons was prepared for each grade level. Pupils moving to the next grade studied new lessons which embodied all previously taught targets. The staff and the teachers felt that the pupils needed to start in at the beginning of the target sequence each year after returning from summer vacation.

Contextual Themes of Lessons

The contextual themes of the lessons were based on teachers' suggestions and derived from class activities, the science and social studies curriculum guides, children's literature, current events, local matters of interest, and the home environment.

Lesson Format

The lesson materials were designed in the form of lesson plans, to assist the teacher in presenting a structured and coherent oral language curriculum using current methods of classroom presentation and based on the assumptions and hypotheses discussed in Chapter I. Contained in the lessons are many of the current devices of language teaching:[4] dialogues, pattern drills, minimal pair drills, recognition drills, production drills, communication exercises, and other such devices. Details of lesson format and utilization are set forth in Appendix B.

Revisions

The grammatical lessons written and used during the first year of the project were found to be inadequate for the purposes of the project study. They were abandoned, and a completely new set of lessons was written the second year. These were then subjected to revisions based on teacher evaluation during the two final years of presentation, with the exception of the kindergarten lessons, which were revised based on one year of presentation and evaluation.[5] Phonology lessons, being presented only during the final year of the project, were revised based on one year of evaluation. Thus the experimental pupils received only a slight exposure to the curriculum during the first year of the project, a partial exposure during the second year, and only during the final two years did they receive a more complete treatment.

The teachers' evaluations of the lessons were made after the presentation of each lesson. The evaluations were submitted in writing to the lesson writers in response to questions on an evaluation form. The first version of the form for grammar lessons did not generate adequate information of the type needed for revisions, so a second, more satisfactory form was devised and used during the final year of the project. (See Exhibits IV-1 and IV-2.)

The lesson writers met with teachers for discussion or clarification of evaluations when necessary, and the teachers were asked to bring suggestions about revisions at any time. Other information for revision came from staff observations of oral language sessions and from advice given by consultants. In addition, the lesson writers taught several language sessions in order to gain direct information about the usefulness of lessons. To gain more information for revision, selected phonology lessons were taught over a two-week period at Haaheo Elementary School, located in another area of Hilo.

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[4] Wilga M. Rivers, Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968).

[5] For medical reasons the kindergarten teacher could not present and evaluate lessons throughout the final year of the project. Since the final year of kindergarten did not figure heavily in statistical analysis, and since there was little time to secure and train a new teacher, project lessons were not presented in the kindergarten after October of the final project year.

The main concerns of lesson revisions were in the following areas:

1. Revisions of sequence.

2. Revisions of the drill and exercise materials to more efficiently promote language practice, with attention to interest, meaning, complexity, and coverage of targets.

3. Revisions of the contextual theme of the lesson or the concepts buried in the dialogues and exercises, to agree with teachers' advice and pupils' interest and age levels.

4. Revisions of the communication activities of the lessons, with attention to interest, meaning, complexity, and coverage of targets.

5. Revisions of the number, length, and complexity of lessons within a sequence step.

6. Revisions of vocabulary or phraseology.

The lesson materials developed and used in this project are an example of the kinds of lesson plans that could be developed for the Hilo, Hawaii environment based upon the assumptions and hypotheses outlined in Chapter I. They were developed for two purposes: to be used as part of the control treatment for the purpose of testing the hypotheses, and as sample lesson plans. (See page 123, Appendix B.) Many other lesson formulations and sequences could of course be developed upon the same premises. It is not our purpose to present the project lesson plans as the final word in lesson materials.

Sample lessons will not appear in this chapter. All of the lessons in their final form appear in Appendix B of this report.

EXHIBIT IV-1: Phonology Lesson Evaluation Form

PHONOLOGY LESSON EVALUATION DATE ________________
(To be turned in immediately after the lesson presentation)

Phonology Lesson: ________________ Target Sound: ________________

Approximately how much time did you need to spend on:
1. Phonology lesson as a whole: ________________
2. Parts of the lesson: ________________________

What part or parts of the lesson had to be repeated or lengthened?

Difficulty with Target Sound: Note if the children had difficulties in recognition and discrimination, and in production of the target sound. (For vowels and voiced and unvoiced "th": wherever possible, note if difficulty is with target sound as a whole, or target in certain position and, if possible, specific words. For final consonants: wherever possible, note specific consonant clusters that were especially difficult.)

When children had difficulty, what devices other than those mentioned in the lesson did you employ?

What supplementary poems did you use? How effective were they as to appeal and as a teaching device? (Note titles and effectiveness.)

What difficulties besides those mentioned above did you have with the lesson?

What suggestion do you have for improving the lesson?

COMMENTS:

EXHIBIT IV-2: Structure Lesson Evaluation Form

LESSON EVALUATION - (1968-1969) Structure Lesson
(Should be turned in promptly since lesson revisions this year must be done immediately after each lesson presentation.)

Lesson No.____ Grade_______ Date Introduced ________________

LESSON TITLE: ____________________________________

What kinds of difficulties did you encounter in presenting this lesson?

What kinds of difficulties did the children encounter?

What is your opinion of the effectiveness of this lesson?

Suggestions:

V PRESENTATION OF LESSONS

Time and Duration of Sessions

Project lessons were presented daily for a minimum of thirty minutes. During the first two and one-half years of the project, lessons were presented during three, ten-minute sessions each day. The teachers came to feel that ten minutes did not afford enough time for a meaningful practice session, and the schedule was accordingly changed to two, fifteen-minute sessions each day for the remainder of the project. For ease of observation the teachers were asked to schedule language sessions in advance. These requirements gave a rigid character to the timing and duration of oral language sessions in the experimental classes that would not be expected as a feature of teaching outside of this controlled experimental situation.

Audio-Lingual Approach

Presentation of project lessons was planned to follow generally accepted practices of the audio-lingual approach to oral language teaching. As applicable to the project lesson materials these are set out in detail in Appendix B, Teacher's Guide and Lessons.[1]

Most importantly these practices include: pupil practice of oral language following a progression from repetition imitating an oral model, to manipulation and variation of language patterns in drills, to communication in a controlled situation; and the promotion of learning through positive reinforcement of desired behavior.

Goals

The ultimate goal of such teaching is the control of oral language features to the extent of spontaneous and easy communication.

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[1] See also:

Ruth Hok, "Principles and Techniques Characteristic of the Oral Approach," Language Learning, Vol XVI, Nos. 1 & 2, (1966), pp. 87-92.

Daniel Quilter, Do's and Don'ts of Audio-Lingual Teaching, (Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966).

Wilga M. Rivers, Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968).

The over-all goal in this project was to test, in a school situation, the general research hypotheses stated in Chapter I. Classroom goals of project lesson sessions are listed on pages 2 and 122 of Appendix B.

Teacher Training

To present lessons in accordance with the audio-lingual approach it is necessary that the teacher have a reasonable control of the skills and practices which are embodied therein. The project staff sought to control this aspect of teaching through teacher training.

Teacher training consisted mainly of explanations of audio-lingual methods, demonstration teaching by the staff and by consultants, directed reading in language teaching and applied linguistics, and critiques of teaching. During the first year of the project two teachers attended a course in linguistics for teachers, and two attended an NDEA Institute in second dialect teaching, both offered by the University of Hawaii.

Discussions and critiques of teaching were carried out during scheduled staff meetings and in private conferences between teachers and staff members, based on staff observations of language sessions. Teachers observed each other briefly to gain insight into presentation problems not open to their observation in their own classrooms. Teacher training for presentation of phonology lessons included also peer teaching and critique.

Observations of Teaching

Two types of classroom observations were carried out during the project: a) observations of project teachers presenting language sessions, and b) observations of teaching in both control and experimental classrooms. Observations of project lesson sessions furnished information for lesson material revisions and teacher training critiques. The results of these observations are incorporated in the Teacher's Guide and Lessons, Appendix B.

The observation of teaching in both groups was conducted to determine differences between control and experimental teaching conditions and also among teachers. The observations took place in the middle of the final project year. Each classroom was observed for 20 periods of 15 minutes duration. The four staff members were scheduled for observations so that each staff member would observe each teacher. All portions of the class day were observed, but the scheduling of the observations over the whole period was done randomly.

Comparisons of Experimental and Control Groups

Based on these observations the following comparisons have been made:

1. The experimental group spent more time practicing repetition of oral models of standard English than the control group did. Most of this practice was observed during project lesson sessions. Oral repetition of models in control classes was limited to corrections, repetition of oral reading, pronunciation of spelling words, and incidental aspects of the standard curriculum.

2. Only the experimental group practiced at manipulation and variation of structure patterns by means of pattern drills. In addition, both control and experimental groups got such practice through corrections and through answering questions, and, in the kindergarten and first grades, briefly during the "Talking Time" television lesson presented during the final year of the project.

3. Controlled communication practice was conducted during project lesson sessions. Also, both control and experimental groups got such practice through corrections and answering questions, and through teacher-pupil conversations.

4. There was very little observation of either group receiving explicit information on dialects in differential settings. (The experimental teachers, however, reported that they had discussed this at various times with their pupils.) The project lessons presented standard English in typical settings but rarely made pupils explicitly aware of the social or contextual implications involved.

5. There were very few instances observed of the experimental group teachers taking advantage of opportunities outside of oral language sessions to encourage pupils to use standard English features practiced during language sessions, or to reward unsolicited usage, although this was an integral part of the project curriculum. (The experimental teachers reported, however, that they frequently did provide such reinforcement.) Control teachers did not conduct project-developed oral language sessions and therefore could not be compared in this respect.

6. Both control and experimental group teachers encouraged and expected pupils to use standard English in the classroom. The experimental group teachers were observed to be somewhat more

rigorous in this respect.

7. The experimental group was presented phonological discrimination, recognition and minimal contrast drills based on standard English phonemic contrasts. The control group did not have such drills. Both groups practiced pronunciation based on spelling or reading exercises.

8. The experimental group grammatical targets were derived from contrasts between standard English and Hawaii Islands Dialect. Although the control group teaching targets sometimes were identical with those of the experimental group, there is no evidence to indicate that they were derived from systematic considerations of contrasting dialect features.

9. The experimental teachers varied greatly in their personal style of teaching, and in the degree to which they approached "ideal" presentation of project lessons. The control teachers similarly varied in teaching style and the degree to which they approached "ideal" teaching of language arts.

In general, the information gathered from both kinds of observations, from discussions with teachers, and from teacher communications, indicates that control and experimental classes differed most importantly in just those features which are the hypotheses, methods, and assumptions of the experimental treatment (see Chapter I and Appendix B). Although the effectiveness of the presentation of the experimental treatment was somewhat less than the optimal visualization of the staff, the teaching situation in both the experimental and control classes seems to be a fairly typical and normal example of the public school environment. The presentation of experimental lessons was a reasonable and realistic, if less than perfect, test of the project treatment.

VI DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The analysis of the data collected over the four years of the study bears on three main concerns:

1. the nature of the classes used in the four years of the study;
2. the effect of the experimental program on the classes involved;
3. the progress of students through the years of oral language training.

As was noted in Chapter III, the data collected include yearly results from the California Test of Mental Maturity (CTMM) and the California Achievement Test (CAT) as well as semi-annual ratings of the speech proficiency of each child.

Because the speech ratings comprise a critical part of the data, extensive attention was given to the relevance of the method used. A discussion of the results of the raters and the ratings is given at the end of this chapter (Appendix). Briefly, we found that all the raters were able to judge with relative accuracy (agreement among themselves) the oral language of the children. The judgments over the years reflected, in general, the developmental nature of speech proficiency although the ratings on any individual child may differ markedly from this general trend. The ratings for the three subscales (Overall Speech, Grammar, and Phonology) tended to correlate with one another too highly to support a conclusion that each dimension is independent of the others although, when the ratings of the three raters judging each child were pooled, a certain amount of "independence" among the three scales emerged. With regard to the ratings, then, it is felt that the method used produced a good assessment of the children's overall oral language competency. Further detailed conslusions and recommendations are included in the Appendix to this chapter.

Analysis of Ability Test Results

Before an analysis of speech development would have much meaning, an evaluation of the ability level of the classes involved was considered necessary. If the classes involved changed along some basic ability dimension during the course of the study, this shift would have to be considered in dealing with any related change in speech proficiency. As an index of basic ability the "IQ" scores from the annually administered CTMM were used. The three scores were Language IQ, Non-Language IQ, and Total IQ. A three-way Analysis of Variance was performed for each of these scores over the array depicted in Table II-3. Before the Analysis was performed an adjustment was made for the unequal numbers in each cell by testing the distribution (Chi square=6.42, df=31) and computing the proportionate sum and sum of squares for each cell in the array.

TABLE VI-1: Analysis of CTMM Language IQ Over All Years, Grades and Conditions

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Year	3	1552.56	517.52	3.526 *
Grade	3	7436.78	2478.93	16.877 **
Condition	1	172.04	172.04	1.172
Y x G	9	3668.82	407.65	2.778
Y x C	3	235.97	78.66	.536
G x C	3	168.47	56.14	.383
Y x G x C	9	2139.35	237.71	1.620
Within	710.08	104210.68	146.78	
Total	741.08	119584.67		

* signif. at .05 level (df=3/710.08)
** signif. at .01 level (df=3/710.08)

For Language IQ the analysis demonstrated that the difference between the means across conditions was not significantly different from that expected by chance. While this is not taken as proving no differences, it is strongly suggestive that the experimental and control classes were quite similar in measured Language IQ. For these same scores the differences among the yearly means as well as the means among grades did prove to be greater than attributable to chance. An examination of the graphs in Figures VI-1 and VI-2 shows that these differences are not systematic enough to cast doubt on any changes in speech proficiency except in the case of grade-by-grade development.

Because the foregoing differences did exist, some additional checks on the stability of the classes were made. These checks consisted of examining the null hypothesis that the fourth grade classes for the first and last years of the study were the same in their general ability. Simple "t" tests were used and the results are shown in Table VI-2 below. The differences between the first and fourth year classes were, in no case, significantly greater than that expected by chance.

TABLE VI-2: Summary of "t" Tests of Differences Between First and Last Year Fourth Grade Classes With Respect to CTMM Scores

Source:	65-66 Mean	68-69 Mean	"t"	(df)
Language IQ	101.14	99.34	.662	(95)
Non-Language IQ	95.46	98.53	1.056	(95)
Total IQ	98.56	98.98	.135	(95)

To check the nature of subjects entering the study, a two-way analysis of variance was performed on the Total Readiness Percentile Rankings from the Metropolitan Readiness Test given each child at the end of Kindergarten. This analysis yielded a significant F value for the differences among the years of the study. As can be seen from the graphed means in Figure VI-3, this was due to an apparently patternless fluctuation from year to year. In fact, the first and last year means are almost identical. More importantly, the differences between those subjects assigned to experimental and control classes are not significant.

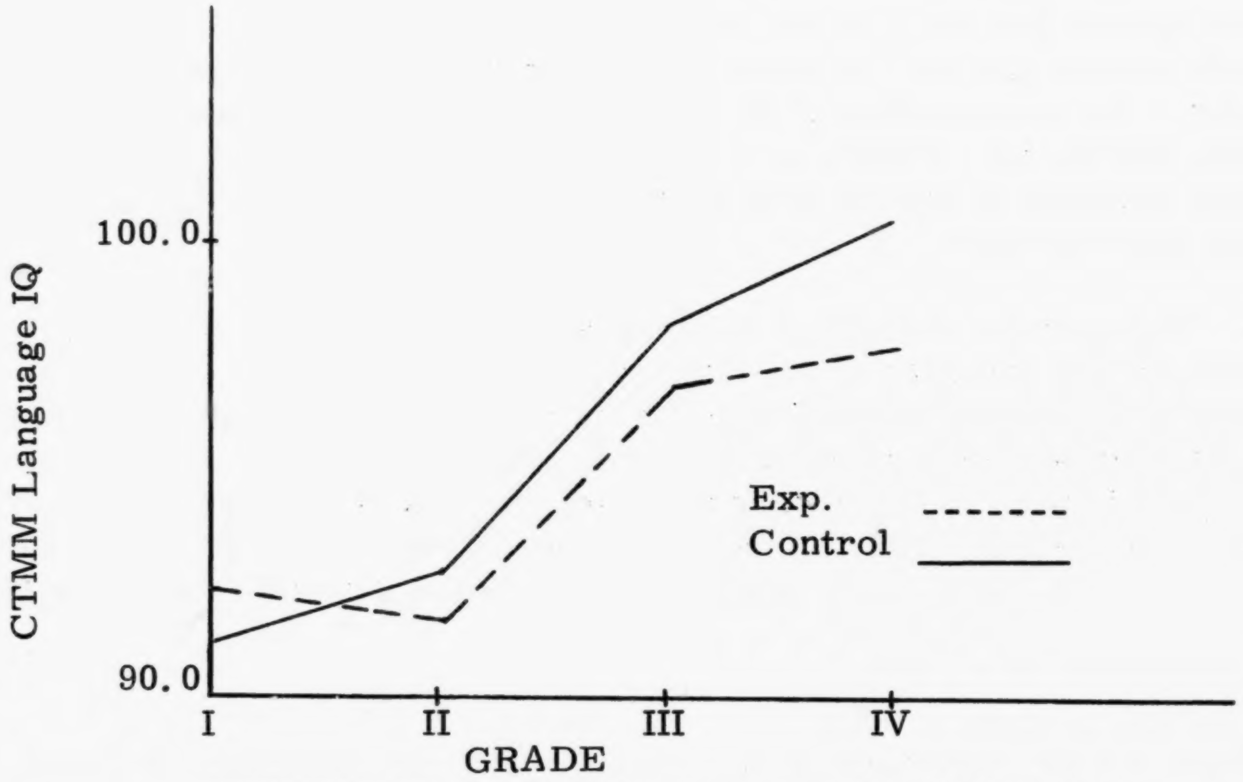

FIGURE VI-1: CTMM Language IQ plotted by grade level for experimental and control groups.

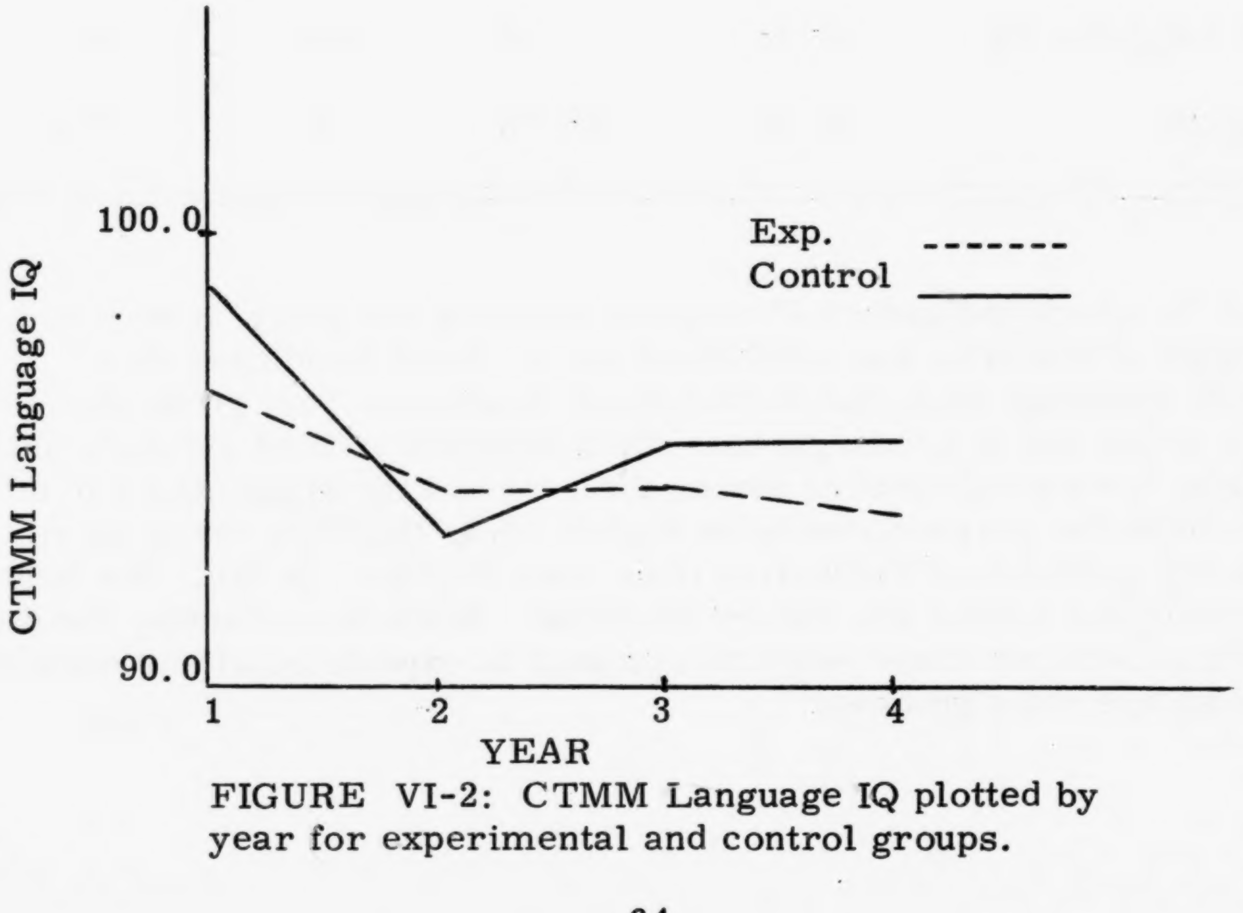

FIGURE VI-2: CTMM Language IQ plotted by year for experimental and control groups.

TABLE VI-3: Analysis of Total Readiness Percentile Scores (Metropolitan) Across Years and Conditions

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Year	3	10087.04	3362.35	5.467 *
Condition	1	971.00	971.00	1.579
Y x C	3	2197.93	732.64	1.191
Within	156	95945.01	615.03	
Total	163	109200.98		

* signif. at .01 level (df=3/156)

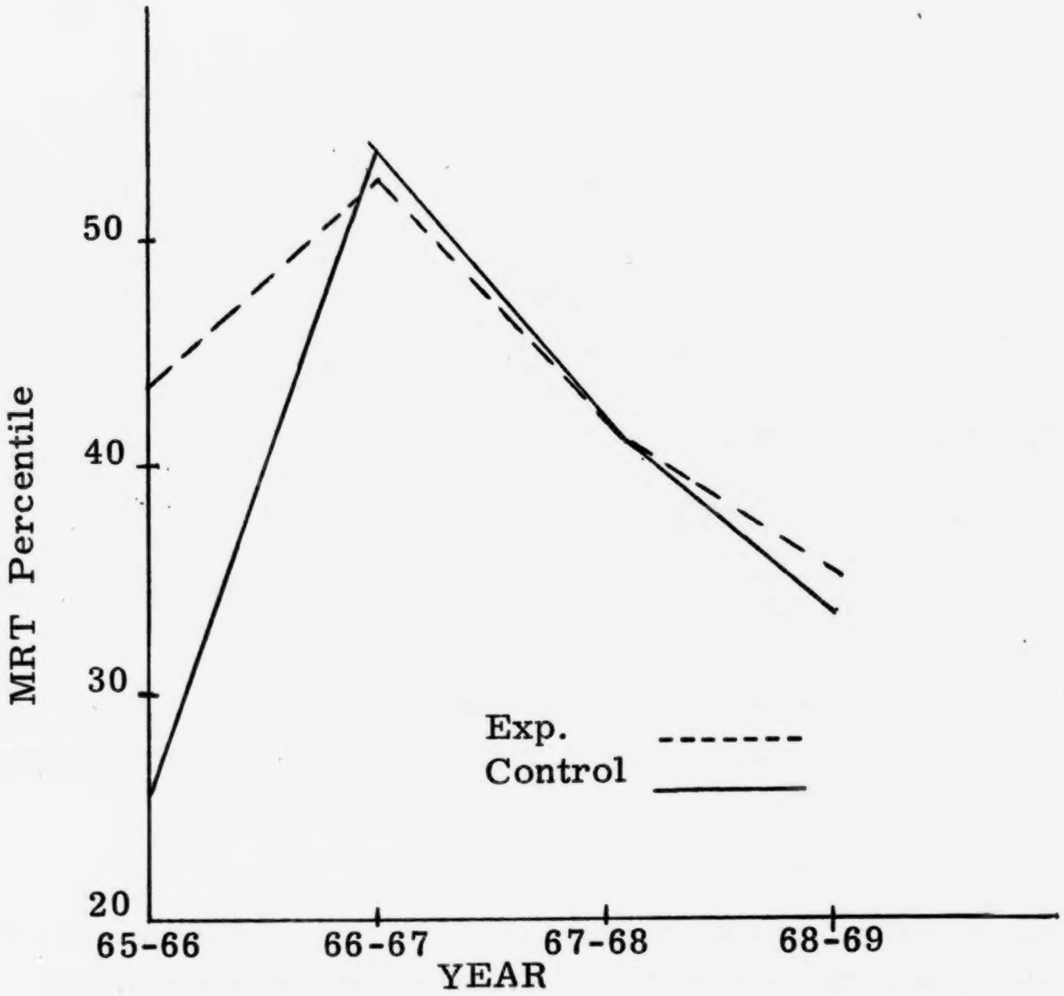

FIGURE VI-3: Graph of Metropolitan Readiness Test percentile scores, plotted by year.

We conclude that the experimental and control conditions did not appear to differ in general ability on any of the indices used. Further, there was no systematic shift in general ability or "readiness," even to the extent that the means between the first and last year fourth grade and kindergarten were substantially similar. Some fluctuation in general ability did occur and the rising Language IQ score with grade does represent a factor which might influence the conclusions drawn from the speech proficiency data.

TABLE VI-4: Analysis of CAT Reading Grade Placement Over All Years, Grades, and Conditions

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Year	3	1.5	.5	1.35
Grade	3	662.21	220.74	594.37 *
Condition	1	.05	.05	.135
Y x G	9	0.	0.	0.
Y x C	3	.33	.11	.296
G x C	3	1.06	.35	.942
Y x G x C	9	9.40	1.04	2.80 **
Within	713.92	265.14	.371	
Total	744.92	939.68		

* signif. at .01 level (df=3/713.92)
** signif. at .01 level (df=9/713.92)
(Distribution test: Chi Square=6.129, df=31)

Analysis of Achievement Test Results

The original intention was to use the California Achievement Test as one criterion measure, since, theoretically, proficiency in oral language should feedback into other language achievement areas, such as "mechanics of English" or reading. Although the latter result did not occur, the results of the CAT administrations are presented as further data on the similarity between the control and experimental children.

Analyses similar to those performed on the CTMM were conducted on the grade placement scores for the CAT. Two such scores are available: Reading Grade Placement and Language Grade Placement. Tables VI-4 and VI-5 report the analysis of variance results over these two scores. The differences between conditions and across years are not significant departures from chance, but the differences across grades are quite significant, with the latter not surprising assuming some validity in the reading curriculum of the school.

TABLE VI-5: Analysis of CAT Language Grade Placement Over All Years, Grades, and Conditions

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Year	2	1.51	.76	2.25
Grade	3	464.18	154.73	459.57 *
Condition	1	.24	.24	.71
Y x G	6	8.12	1.35	4.01 **
Y x C	2	.72	.36	1.07
G x C	3	1.08	.36	1.07
Y x G x C	6	2.32	.39	1.16
Within	525	176.76	.34	
Total	548	654.93		

* signif. at .01 level (df=3/525)
** signif. at .01 level (df=6/525)

(Distribution test: Chi Square=3.612, df=23)

Figures VI-4 and VI-5 suggest the source of the significant differences in the CAT scores. As would be expected, the children increase in Achievement grade placement as they progress through the grades. Figures VI-6 and VI-7 illustrate the stability of the achievement of the students across the years of the study. This is further indicated by a simple "t" test between the means for the first and last year Fourth grade classes. For Reading Grade Placement the "t" value is 1.138 (df=94), for Language Grade Placement "t"=1.458 (df=94). Neither value is significantly large.

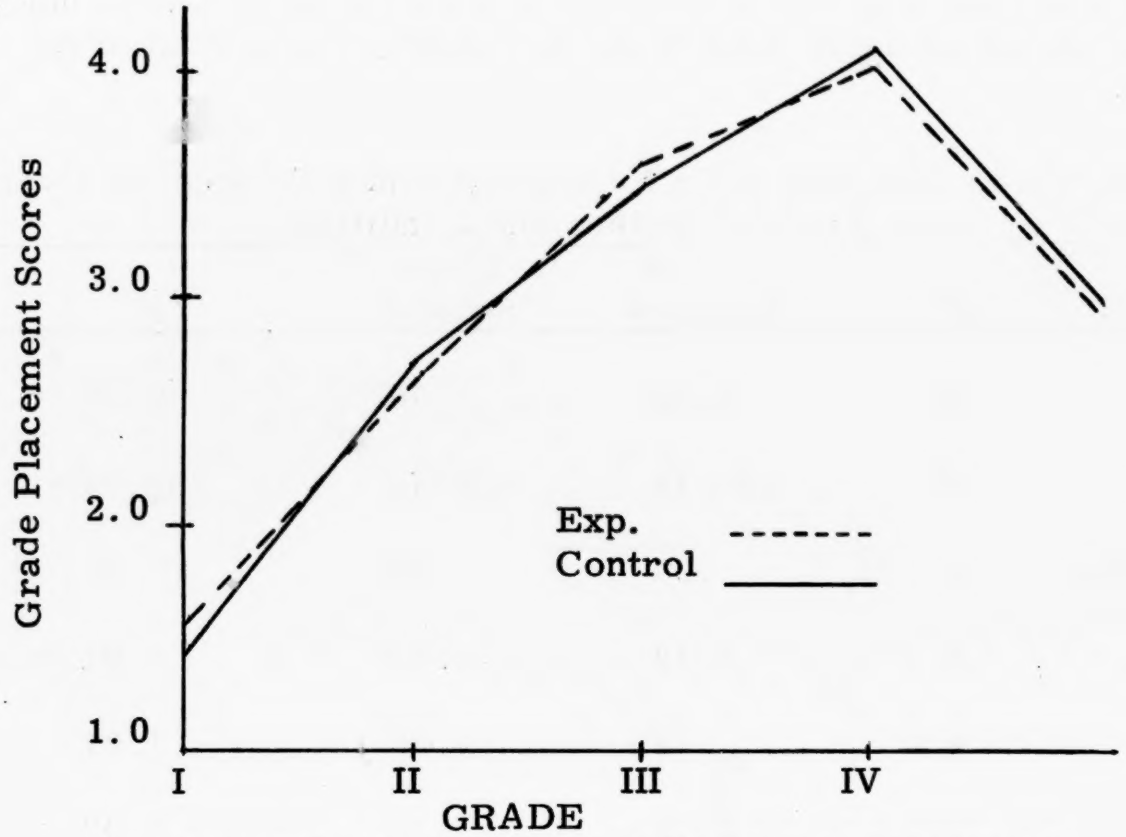

FIGURE VI-4: CAT Reading grade placement scores plotted against grade

One would expect that an effective oral language program would have its impact on achievement in other language areas. The oral language program evaluated here did have such an effect as revealed in the anecdotal reports of the teachers. They reported the children's writing improved as well as their understanding of written English. However, the California Achievement Test proved to be an insensitive instrument for assessing this change. Although there are no hard data to support the conclusion that the children's increased oral language proficiency lead to improvement in other language related areas, this is seen as a problem with the method chosen to demonstrate such achievement and not with reference to the possible existence of such a transfer of learning.

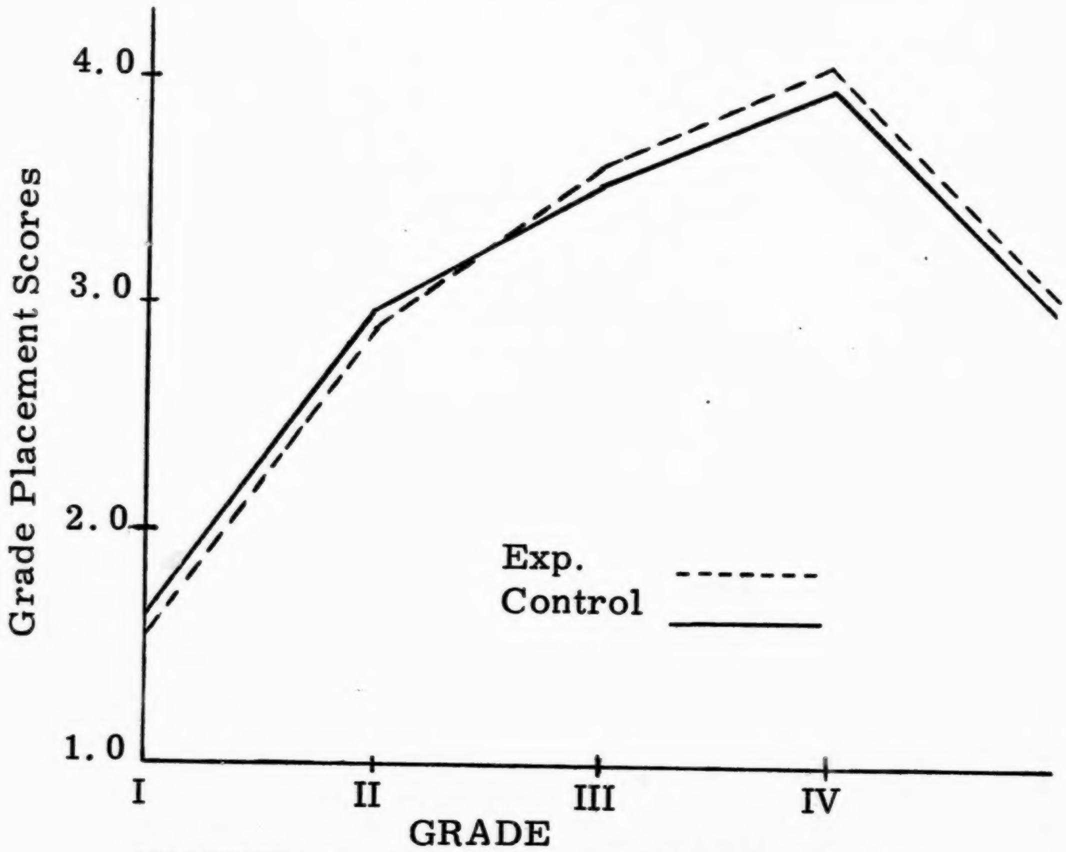

FIGURE VI-5: CAT Language grade placement scores plotted against grade.

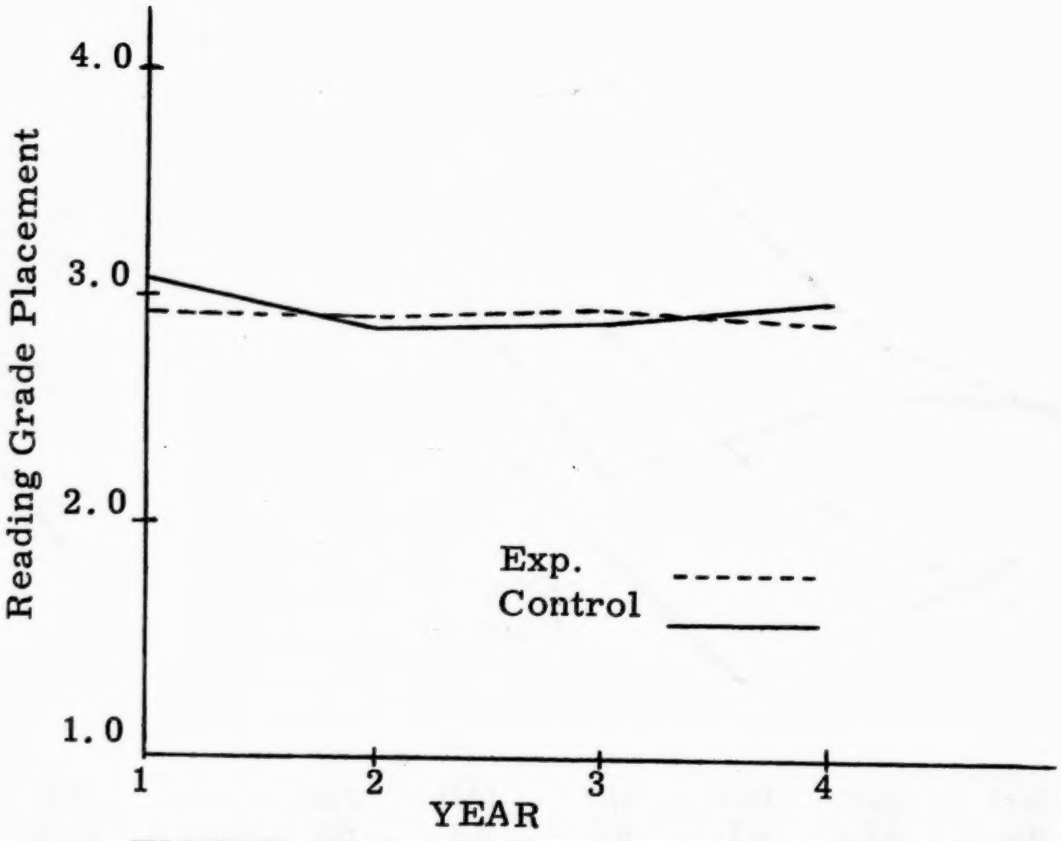

FIGURE VI-6: CAT Reading grade placement scores plotted against year of study.

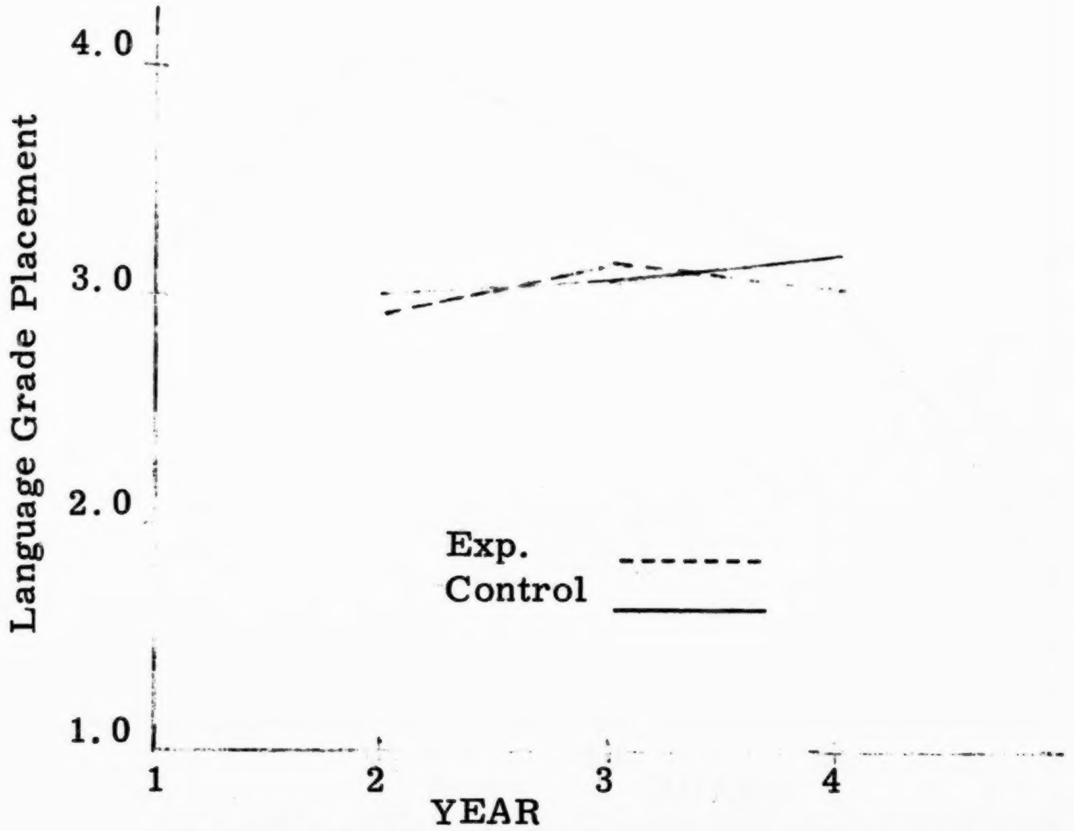

FIGURE VI-7: CAT Language grade placement scores plotted against year of study.

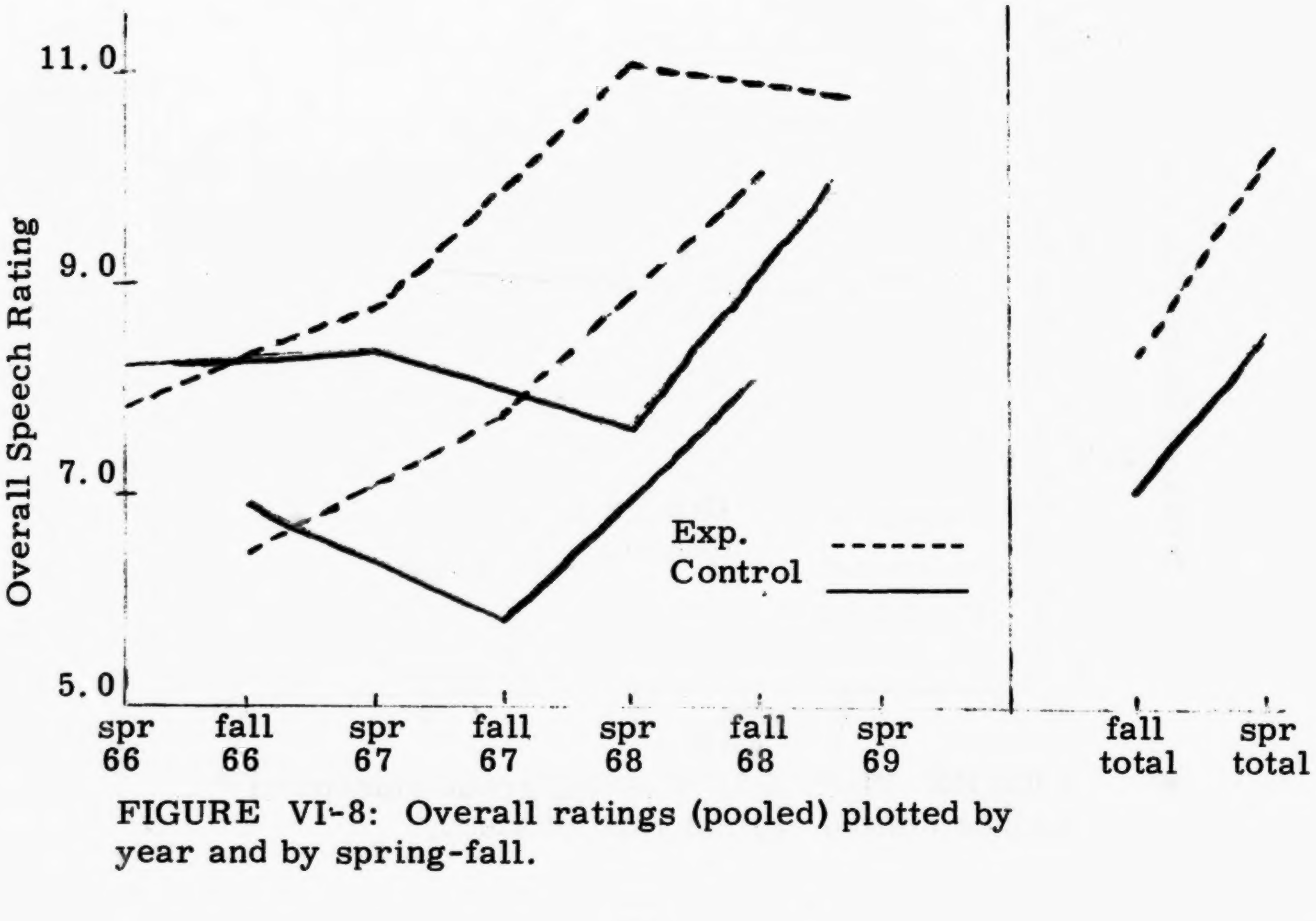

FIGURE VI-8: Overall ratings (pooled) plotted by year and by spring-fall.

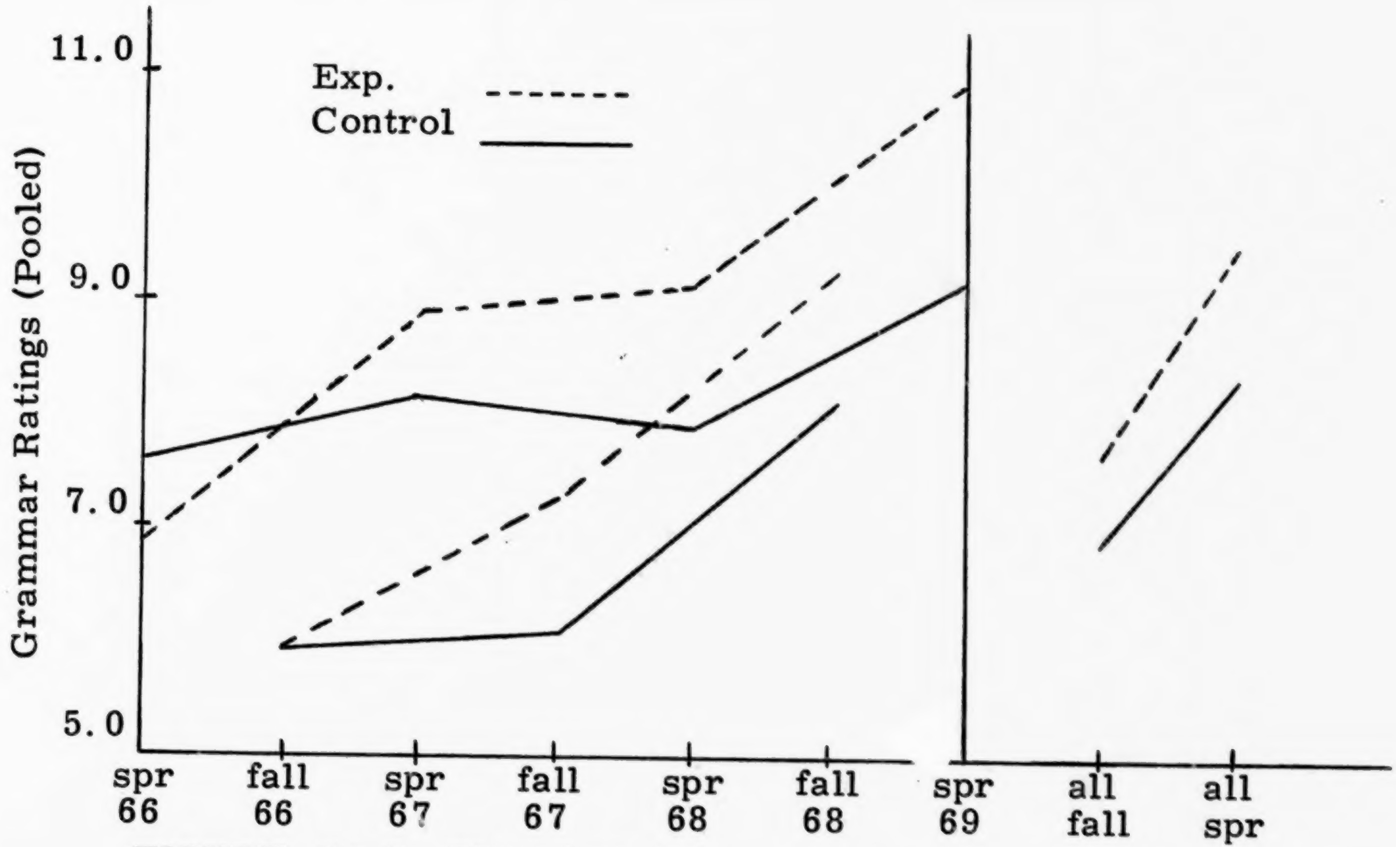

FIGURE VI-9: Plot of pooled grammar ratings for experimental and control groups.

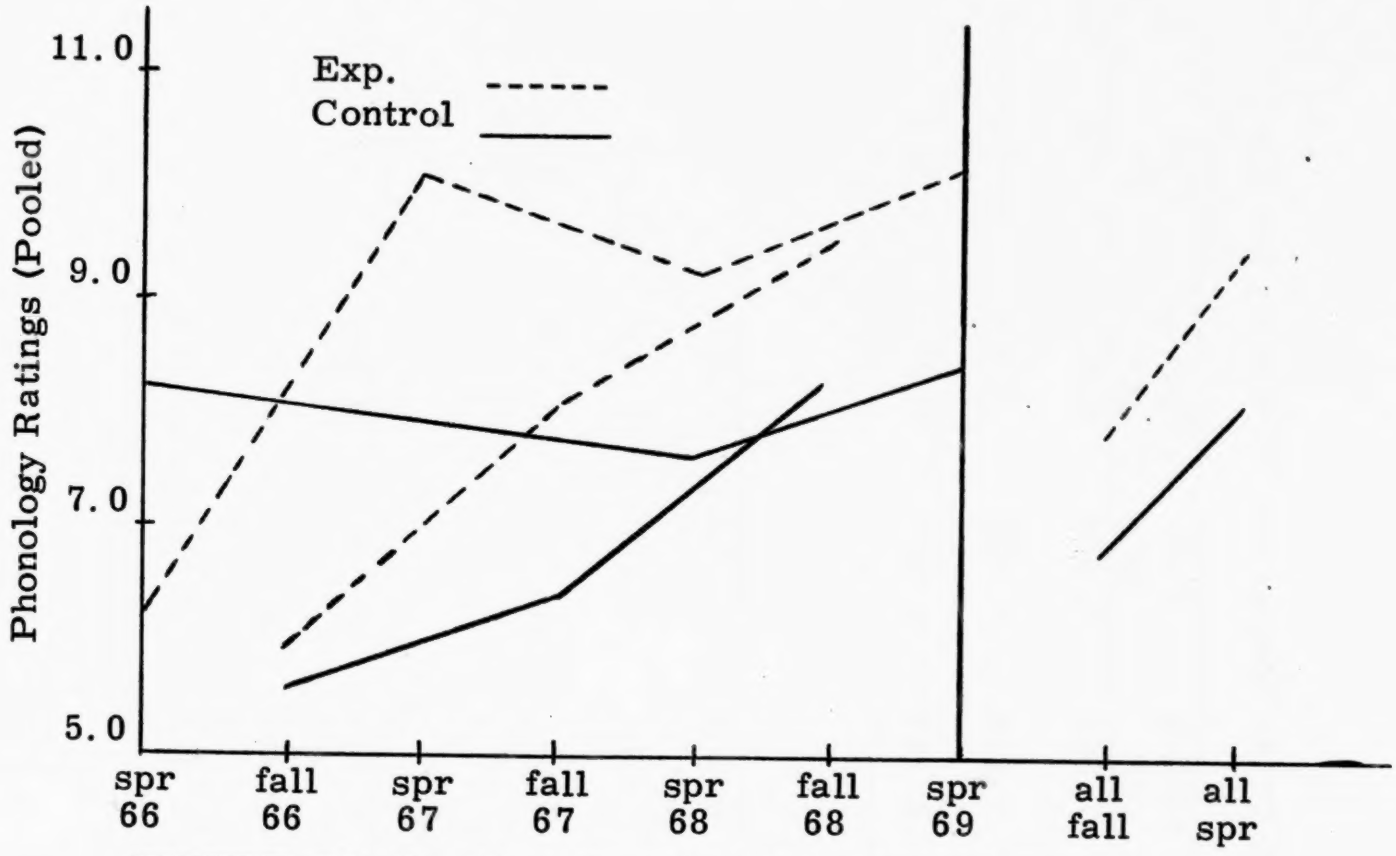

FIGURE VI-10: Plot of pooled phonology ratings.

TABLE VI-6: Means and "t" Values for Experimental-Control and Spring-Fall Differences in Speech Ratings (Pooled)

		Spring 66	Fall 66	Spring 67	Fall 67	Spring 68	Fall 68	Spring 69	Fall Total	Spring Total
OVERALL	M_e	7.929	6.598	8.877	7.913	11.086	10.056	10.966	8.359	10.130
	"t"	-.181	-.426	.764	2.54	4.08	2.51	1.25	2.90	3.36
	M_c	8.167	6.935	8.250	5.865	7.533	8.135	10.064	6.989	8.615
GRAMMAR	M_e	6.981	6.010	8.925	7.333	9.086	9.254	10.911	7.694	9.401
	"t"	-.701	.102	1.002	1.58	1.51	1.73	2.60	2.05	2.59
	M_c	7.685	5.935	8.176	6.143	7.901	8.045	9.147	6.799	8.355
PHONOLOGY	M_e	6.214	5.990	9.991	7.543	9.100	9.254	10.075	7.764	9.268
	"t"	-2.015	1.02	2.80	1.60	2.03	1.37	2.31	2.22	3.13
	M_c	8.222	5.287	7.898	6.338	7.527	8.212	8.462	6.766	8.004

Analysis of Speech Rating

Before further analyses were performed, certain subjects were eliminated from the sample examined. Those children were dropped from the analysis who either spoke "standard" English initially or whose participation in either the experimental or control condition was so slight that they could not reasonably be expected to be affected by the treatment. In addition, those subjects were eliminated who repeated grades at such a time that it was questionable whether they could properly be considered experimental or control subjects.

Whether the remaining subjects were representative of the whole group was not considered to be an especially important question, since the main purpose of the analysis was to examine the long term effectiveness of the treatment. Students who already speak the criterion dialect or whose stay in school is so short that few programs affect them would not be important members of the population for which the oral language training program was developed.

TABLE VI-7: Covariance Analysis Summary Table. Overall Rating --Fall (CTMM Language IQ "Controlled")

		Source of Variation			
		Between	Within	Total	F
CTMM ss	:	13.7	43156.18	43169.78	
Rating ss	:	16162.66	720440.51	736603.17	
df	:	1.	322.	323.	
Rating ms	:	16162.66	2237.39		7.22 *
Sum of Products	:	-470.67	85421.09	84950.42	
Adjusted Rating ss	:	18073.98	551362.47	569436.45	
df	:	1.	321.	322.	
Adjusted Rating ms	:	18073.98	1717.64		10.52 *

* signif. at .01 level

Across the selected subgroup the mean ratings for experimental and control subjects were compared in several ways. Table VI-6 shows the means and "t" values for experimental and control groups year by year. While the initial ratings tend to favor the control subjects, the experimental group is well ahead by the final year. This increasing difference is graphically demonstrated in Figures VI-8, VI-9, and VI-10.

One noticeable feature is that the absolute values of spring scores are consistently higher than the fall scores. This is especially true for the experimental groups. "t" tests were computed, but when correction was made for the substantial correlation involved between fall and spring ratings, none of these differences was found to be significant. The trend seems clear from the graphs, however: there is a consistent retreat between spring and fall and an equally consistent advance during the school year.

TABLE VI-8: Covariance Analysis Summary Table. Overall Rating --Spring (CTMM Language IQ "Controlled")

	Source of Variation			
	Between	Within	Total	F
CTMM ss :	52.19	47832.30	47884.49	
Rating ss :	17326.52	659359.23	676685.75	
df :	1.	356.	357.	
Rating ms :	17326.52	1852.13		9.36 *
Sum of Products :	-951.12	88237.29	87286.17	
Adjusted Rating ss :	20990.31	496585.98	517576.29	
df :	1.	355.	356.	
Adjusted Rating ms :	20990.31	1398.83		15.01 *

* signif. at .01 level

In order to examine whether these differences were significant, despite any different trend in CTMM Language IQ, an Analysis of Covariance was performed on the Overall Rating for fall and spring. The results of the analysis are given in Tables VI-7 and VI-8. When CTMM Language IQ is accounted for, the differences between the experimental and control groups become more firmly significant.

Analysis by Sex

In order to examine the possibility that one sex, since they tend to differ in language areas in general, might profit differently from the experimental program, the subjects were identified by sex and the data analyzed to explore this area.

The analysis yielded considerable insight into the way in which the project curriculum materials affected the students. Briefly, as the following data will show, boys profited from the experimental treatment more than did girls.

The data for this analysis were drawn from the group originally designated for the four-year study: those children who were in kindergarten, first and second grades at the start of the second project year. It is for these children that the most complete data were available. These classes had also had the greatest contact with the curriculum; some students had been in the program for three and four years.

TABLE VI-9: Comparison of Speech Ratings for Boys and Girls Over All Years, for Spring and Fall

	Male	Female	"t"	(df)
Fall:				
Overall	2.50	2.80	1.86	(324)
Grammar	2.44	2.64	1.23	(324)
Phonology	2.36	2.67	1.99 *	(324)
Spring:				
Overall	3.09	3.44	2.43 *	(382)
Grammar	2.96	3.27	2.14 *	(382)
Phonology	2.79	3.19	2.86 **	(382)

* signif. at .05 level
** signif. at .01 level

When all the boys and girls from this group were compared over the entire span of the study, girls showed up better in oral language proficiency, significantly so in the spring. The "t" values and means demonstrating this are given in Table VI-9.

When the boys and girls from control and experimental conditions are compared separately, however, a slightly different picture emerges:

TABLE VI-10: Speech Ratings by Sex, for Fall-Spring, Over All Years

		Male	Female	"t"	(df)
Experimental Group:					
Fall:					
	Overall	2.73	2.93	.84	(155)
	Grammar	2.65	2.77	.51	(155)
	Phonology	2.57	2.78	.91	(155)
Spring:					
	Overall	3.38	3.51	.61	(186)
	Grammar	3.22	3.33	.57	(186)
	Phonology	3.09	3.23	.76	(186)
Control Group:					
Fall:					
	Overall	2.27	2.69	1.85	(167)
	Grammar	2.24	2.52	1.28	(167)
	Phonology	2.14	2.56	1.98 *	(167)
Spring:					
	Overall	2.78	3.38	2.92 **	(194)
	Grammar	2.69	3.21	2.55 *	(194)
	Phonology	2.48	3.14	3.42 **	(194)

* signif. at .05 level
** signif. at .01 level

As can be seen, the control group girls appear much more proficient in oral language than the control group boys. This is not as apparent with the experimental group. This finding is reinforced when one compares the experimental and control groups over each sex.

TABLE VI-11: Speech Ratings by Condition, for Fall-Spring, Over All Years

	Exper.	Control	"t"	(df)
Fall:				
Overall:				
Boys	2.73	2.27	1.96	(136)
Girls	2.93	2.69	1.09	(186)
Grammar:				
Boys	2.65	2.24	1.74	(136)
Girls	2.77	2.58	1.20	(186)
Phonology:				
Boys	2.57	2.14	1.96 *	(136)
Girls	2.78	2.56	1.02	(186)
Spring:				
Overall:				
Boys	3.38	2.78	2.70 **	(158)
Girls	3.51	3.38	.72	(222)
Grammar:				
Boys	3.22	2.60	2.41 *	(158)
Girls	3.33	3.21	.66	(222)
Phonology:				
Boys	3.09	2.48	2.89 **	(158)
Girls	3.23	3.14	.51	(222)

* signif. at .05 level
** signif. at .01 level

The trend for boys to be more demonstrably affected by the curriculum is also evident when one looks at comparisons between the experimental and control groups over the years of the study. If the curriculum was actually instrumental in producing the differences shown above, then one would expect the phenomenon to parallel the development of the materials. Since the curriculum was not really available the first year, only slightly available the second year, and more fully available the last two years, one would expect an increasingly greater difference to develop between experimental and control subject reflecting the implementation of the curriculum. A comparison of the spring Overall rating for these years indicates this to be true for boys but not for girls.

TABLE VI-12: Speech Ratings for Condition and Sex Shown for Each Year of Study

	Exper.	Control	"t"	(df)
Spring-Overall:				
1966				
Boys	2.13	2.85	-1.35	(19)
Girls	2.66	2.79	- .29	(32)
1967				
Boys	3.13	2.64	1.25	(43)
Girls	3.13	2.98	.50	(60)
1968				
Boys	3.87	2.59	2.90 **	(45)
Girls	3.68	3.49	.50	(62)
1969				
Boys	3.85	3.07	2.08 *	(45)
Girls	4.12	4.01	.36	(62)

* signif. at .05 level
** signif. at .01 level

The dip in the final year may be attributed to the fact that one group of boys (those who started the study in the first grade) was in the untreated fourth grade during that year.

A comparison of boys and girls on the other measures used in this study did not reveal any significant difference between the sexes on these measures. The means and "t" values were:

TABLE VI-13: Comparison of CTMM and CAT Scores, by Sex, Over All Years and Conditions

	Male	Female	"t"	(df)
CTMM				
Lang IQ	95.65	94.06	1.18	(317)
Non-Lang IQ	100.84	99.89	.69	(317)
Total	97.90	96.53	1.02	(317)
CAT				
Reading GP	2.66	2.79	-1.05	(321)
Language GP	2.94	3.02	- .68	(289)

Relationships Among Speech Ratings

For the same group analyzed in the preceding section, the correlation among the various rating scales and times was explored. The correlation between the rating scales at any one time (i. e., fall or spring) proved to be quite high. The correlation between scales from fall to spring was lower, but shows a relationship between fall and spring speech ratings. The correlation coefficients for the whole group between fall and spring were:

TABLE VI-14: Correlation Among Speech Ratings Over All Subjects

			1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1.	Fall--	Overall					
2.		Grammar	.99				
3.		Phonology	.98	.97			
4.	Spring--	Overall	.74	.72	.73		
5.		Grammar	.73	.72	.72	.98	
6.		Phonology	.75	.74	.74	.97	.96

(N's variable but always between 324 and 384)

When only the experimental subjects are used for this analysis, the same general relationship holds, except that the rated speech in the spring is slightly less related to the rated speech in the fall.

TABLE VI-15: Correlation Among Speech Ratings Over Experimental Subjects

			1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1.	Fall--	Overall					
2.		Grammar	.98				
3.		Phonology	.98	.96			
4.	Spring--	Overall	.66	.63	.65		
5.		Grammar	.64	.62	.64	.98	
6.		Phonology	.67	.64	.67	.96	.96

(N's variable but always between 157 and 188)

When the total group is divided by sex, there is no noticeable difference in the relationships among the ratings.

TABLE VI-16: Correlation Among Speech Ratings, by Sex

			1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1.	Fall--	Overall					
2.	Fall--	Grammar					
		Boys	.99				
		Girls	.99				
3.		Phonology					
		Boys	.97	.96			
		Girls	.98	.98			
4.	Spring--	Overall					
		Boys	.76	.74	.76		
		Girls	.72	.71	.70		
5.		Grammar					
		Boys	.78	.76	.77	.98	
		Girls	.69	.68	.68	.98	
6.		Phonology					
		Boys	.80	.77	.79	.96	.95
		Girls	.72	.71	.71	.97	.96

(N's variable but always between 138 and 160 for Boys; 186 and 224 for Girls.)

Relationship of Speech Rating to Other Measures

In order to investigate the manner in which the speech ratings were related to ability and achievement in other areas, the speech ratings were correlated with CTMM and CAT scores for the same groups used in the preceding section. Over all subjects, the speech ratings appear to be about equally related to CTMM Language IQ, CAT Reading grade placement and CAT Language grade placement. The ratings are less related to CTMM Non-Language IQ.

TABLE VI-17: Correlation Between Speech Ratings and Ability and Achievement Measures Over All Subjects (N's in Parentheses)

		CTMM Language (285)	CTMM Non-Lang (285)	CAT Reading (286)	CAT Language (286)
Fall--	Overall	.55	.34	.62	.60
	Grammar	.55	.34	.63	.60
	Phonology	.52	.33	.62	.59
		(318)	(318)	(322)	(291)
Spring--	Overall	.56	.39	.60	.59
	Grammar	.56	.40	.59	.57
	Phonology	.55	.40	.57	.55

Breaking this total group into boys and girls does not change the correlations in any noticeable way. When just the experimental group is considered, the relationship between achievement measures and the speech ratings remains about the same. The relationship between the speech ratings and ability measures, however, does drop slightly. A reduced relationship to ability is a desirable outcome in the experimental class although it would be better if it were accompanied by an increased relationship to achievement.

TABLE VI-18: Correlation Between Speech Ratings and Ability and Achievement Measures Over Experimental Subjects (N's in Parentheses)

		CTMM Language (138)	CTMM Non-Lang (138)	CAT Reading (140)	CAT Language (140)
Fall--	Overall	.47	.22	.65	.64
	Grammar	.48	.21	.65	.65
	Phonology	.45	.20	.66	.65
		(154)	(154)	(157)	(143)
Spring--	Overall	.50	.27	.60	.57
	Grammar	.49	.29	.59	.55
	Phonology	.52	.32	.57	.54

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER VI

Analysis of Raters and Ratings

In order to be able to conclude that the curriculum material affected the oral language ability of the students, it is vitally necessary that an accurate method of assessing the child's oral language proficiency be devised. To this end, a seven-point rating scale was developed and tested. The purpose of this section is to present some data on the manner in which this rating method worked during its application as the criterion measure for this study. Two main issues are involved:

1. Did the raters appear to apply the scales uniformly, and
2. Were the uniformly applied ratings suggestive of the phenomenon they were to measure.

In answer to the first question, several measures were obtained. Counts were made of the number of times a rater used a certain rating. Although no two raters listened to exactly the same oral language samples, it could be assumed that, in general, each rater would listen to about the same number of speakers in the middle range. If this were reflected in their ratings, then the proportionate number of times each rater awarded a middle rating (3. 5, 4 or 4. 5) should be about equal. To test this, the proportion of middle ratings for each rater was computed and a Chi Square for the distribution calculated. The resulting value did not show the proportion of rating across raters to be different than that expected by chance (Chi Square=15. 69, df=15).

APPENDIX VI-1: Proportion of Times Each Rater Used the Middle Range of Ratings (3. 5, 4, 4. 5)

Rater	Proportion	Rater	Proportion
1	18. 7	9	14. 3
2	20	10	13
3	15. 7	11	13
4	17	12	19
5	14. 3	13	17. 3
6	13. 3	14	18
7	19. 7	15	17. 7
8	18	16	14

Another check on how uniformly the scales were applied is to compare the degree of interrelationship among the scales for each rater. Although, in general, the correlation between the scales used is much higher than desirable for differential testing, a visual inspection of the coefficients in Appendix VI-2 indicates that all the raters seemed to relate each scale to the others in the same degree; they tend to be uniform in this respect.

APPENDIX VI-2: Correlations Between Scales, by Rater

Rater	N	Overall-Grammar	Overall-Phonology	Grammar-Phonology
1	91	.98	.98	.95
2	53	.97	.97	.99
3	256	.99	.99	.97
4	281	.97	.97	.92
5	205	.97	.98	.94
6	54	.98	.97	.90
7	47	.99	.97	.97
8	141	.97	.97	.96
9	110	.98	.97	.97
10	260	.95	.96	.91
11	357	.96	.82	.81
12	146	.99	.99	.98
13	121	.97	.97	.96
14	149	.96	.97	.96
15	153	.95	.91	.89
16	144	.96	.99	.96

An inspection of Figures VI-8, VI-9, and VI-10 in the data analysis section shows that the ratings appear to increase as time passes, reflecting especially in the case of the control group, the expected increase in oral language proficiency as the child grows older. As a further check on this issue, as well as in an attempt to evaluate its feasibility, the children's classroom teacher also rated each child's tape-recorded speech in the final three periods. While the correlations are not high, they do indicate usable agreement between the teachers (who were quite familiar with the criterion) and the raters.

APPENDIX VI-3: Correlation Between Ratings of Teachers and Trained Raters

	Spring 1968	Fall 1969	Spring 1969
Overall	.81	.63	.75
Grammar	.79	.63	.75
Phonology	.54	.71	.74

VII CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The intention of the project reported here was to develop a method of rating speech proficiency and an instructional technique for improving proficiency that could be administered and used in school economically and practicably. That is, a self-imposed criterion which was at all points administrably within the practical constraints existing in school systems with respect to time and financing. This general point must be paramount in evaluating the results of the project.

The Hawaiian Scale for Rating Speech Proficiency

The data presented earlier suggest that the rating scale developed here has sufficient relevance and reliability for generalized use in populations heavily characterized by nonstandard dialect speakers. In the context of Hawaii Islands Dialect, for which the scale was specifically developed, it is clear that the scale has demonstrable logical relevance and empirical reliability. The speech samples can be elicited by teachers who are able to maintain good rapport with children, with no unusual intrusion on the school's normal schedule and the recorded speech samples can be rated fairly objectively and reliably by teachers who are familiar with the local dialect.

Our hypothesis is that the present form of the Hawaiian scale can be utilized in other nonstandard dialect areas, given only the revision of the reference dialect (i. e., changing "Hawaii Islands Dialect" to "_________ Dialect"). The foregoing hypothesis, of course, must be evaluated in other dialect situations, which we strongly urge, but there seems to be persuasive logical grounds for assuming the cross-dialect relevance and usability of our rating scale.

Whether the rating scale should continue to comprise a grammatical and a phonological subscale in addition to an "over-all" rating is a moot question in our minds. The inter-scale correlations tended to be rather high. However, we are inclined to recommend the continued use of the "sub-components" on the hypothesis that their explicit presence insures that raters adequately sample the "speech" phenomena and not become unconscious victims of a "halo effect" produced by preference for one component over the other in "over-all" rating--a caveat particularly relevant in the case of strong nonstandard dialect areas.

As a partial consequence of the successful experience in and results with this project, the Hawaii State Department of Education is authorizing a new state-supported project directed toward the development, standardization, and use of a standardized achievement test appropriate for the assessment of speech proficiency in the Hawaii public schools. This new project will utilize measurement techniques developed by various sources, including the present project, in order to develop tests administrable by teachers and dealing with critical listening ability and the ability to recognize standard English speech.

Effectiveness of Experimental Treatment

The instructional procedures and materials described earlier in this report and detailed fully in Appendix A, Teacher's Guide and Lessons, appear to be more effective than those techniques found in the "normal" language arts programs in Grades K-3 of the Hawaii public schools in improving speech proficiency along standard-nonstandard dimensions. Inasmuch as the "normal" language arts programs in Hawaii do not appear to differ markedly from those found in many American schools, we feel that the conclusion of local validity can be generalized to other schools with fair, albeit tentative assurance. Again the necessity for cross-validation is important and urged. The Hawaiian materials ("lessons") are predicated on a contrastive analysis of standard English and the Hawaii Islands Dialect; it is patent, of course, that appropriate contrastive analysis in other dialect areas will probably produce different "targets" and hence, different lessons. However, our initial hypotheses about the advantage of "targeting," sequencing, drill, and reinforcement appear to be confirmed and generalizable to different dialect contexts. Teachers may find the Teacher's Guide and Lessons helpful in providing information and examples which will assist them in generating "lessons" relevant to their own dialect areas and linguistic "targets."

We found that boys profited from the experimental treatment more than did girls, even when CTMM Language IQ was taken into account. Our own data do not permit any interpretation of this finding, other than the tendency for boys to begin at a lower proficiency level than girls. Research on this possible sex-treatment interaction is called for and will be welcomed.

Observations made systematically by project staff in both experimental and control classrooms indicate that experimental teachers varied in their "faithfulness" to the defined experimental treatment and that control teachers similarly varied in their language arts teaching. That is to say that there was no "purity" of treatments--nor was it expected. Our assumption is that replication with more agreement among teachers on the nature and procedures of the experimental treatment would produce even greater relative effectiveness. Another constraint on the experimental treatment was found in the fact that the first year was necessarily devoted to the development of instrumentation, to considerable trial-and-error, and continued modification of the experimental lessons. Hence, as the Chapter VI data show, the demonstrated effect began late.

Since experimental and control groups were drawn from the same school building and both conditions existed in the same building over the four-year period of the project, it was inevitable that some contamination would obtain. Our formal and informal observations confirm this phenomenon. Some of the control teachers, on at least some occasions, utilized and applied some of the techniques assigned to experimental groups, having fairly good knowledge of those techniques from constant contact with experimental teachers and with experimental pupils. We found no way to control for this source of experimental error. On the other hand, the fact that the results significantly favored the experimental groups reduces the meaning of any possible contamination. It is a fair presumption that, with no contamination, the experimental and control group differences might have been greater.

Effect of Speech Proficiency on General Achievement and Ability

Although the experimental treatment produced significantly higher ratings in speech proficiency, the hypothesis about the transfer effect of this proficiency on achievement parameters (e.g., reading) was not confirmed. A similar finding obtains for the hypothesized effect of increased oral proficiency on language ability as measured by the CTMM. Our speculation is that the hypothesis governing these transfer effects is still worthwhile and that our study provided an insufficient test for them in the sense that said transfer effects are more difficult to produce without explicit instructional effort. It is clear from our observations that teachers did not give as much attention to the reinforcement of language behavior outside the oral language context as we expected. Therefore, our hypothesis continues to be that, with explicit effort on the part of teachers--and perhaps more explicit correlation of oral language and reading materials, transfer of oral competence to other language-related competence can be expected.

Need for More Research on English in Hawaii

The state of knowledge about English in Hawaii is as yet limited. With increased understanding, better teaching procedures and materials can be produced and utilized. For the enhancement of education in Hawaii we encourage increased study of all aspects of English as spoken in Hawaii. Especially promising are the approaches reported in recent publications by William Labov[1] and Stanley M. Tsuzaki.[2]

Recommendations on Development and Use of Experimental Instructional Techniques and Materials

Given the finding of some relative validity of the techniques and materials produced in this project, the major output is the materials and techniques themselves. Because of the detail and volume in presenting these materials, we have published them separately--which also makes these techniques and materials more easily distributed among interested Hawaiian teachers and administrators. Accordingly we refer to the Teacher's Guide and Lessons, Appendix B, instead of attempting an exposition here.

On the island of Hawaii, where this project was conducted, project materials will be utilized this year (1969-70) at eight Hawaii District schools in programs financed under Title I of Public Law 89-10. In addition, the Hawaiian Homes Commission has financed language centers in two schools, where instruction will be based on project materials.

The conclusion of local validity encourages us further to recommend that with adaptation, modification, and revision necessarily keeping pace with changing conditions and knowledge, the instructional procedures and materials tested on this project could profitably be used in such other schools throughout Hawaii where a need for second-dialect instruction in standard English exists. We would welcome such implementation through the facilities of the State of Hawaii Department of Education.

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[1] William Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, (Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969).

[2] Stanley M. Tsuzaki, "Coexistent Systems in Language Variation: The Case of Hawaiian English," Pidginization and Creolization of Languages, Dell H. Hymes, Ed. (Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, forthcoming).

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APPENDIX A

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF STANDARD AMERICAN ENGLISH AND THE HAWAII ISLANDS DIALECT OF ENGLISH

Prepared under the direction of
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These reports were undertaken by the University of Hawaii under the provisions of a subcontract. Professor Howard P. McKaughan, Director, Pacific and Asian Linguistics Institute, directed their preparation. The first report was prepared by Teresa Cheng, graduate student in Linguistics; the second and third reports by Gloria Glissmeyer, instructor in English; and the fourth report by Professor Stanley M. Tsuzaki of the Department of Linguistics, with the assistance of Mary Lou Huebl, graduate student in Linguistics.

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FIRST REPORT

Preliminary Description of Hawaiian Pidgin Sentence Types With an Introduction to Its Phonology

Introduction

The local dialects of Hawaii, known as Hawaiian Pidgin, grew out of the speech of Asian and Pacific immigrants, the majority of which came from Japan, China, and the Philippines. Most of these immigrants worked in sugarcane and pineapple plantations. While using English as the medium of communication, these plantation workers each contributed his own native element to the English language. The introduction of such elements not only affected the English vocabulary, but also its grammatical structure and phonology. As the years went by, Hawaiian Pidgin rose from a sub-standard dialect to a status symbol in distinguishing the old-timers from the new-comers. Despite the heavy emphasis on "standard" English in schools, many people of Hawaii are still happily conversing with one another in Hawaiian Pidgin.

The two informants for this study are from the Island of Oahu. Both attend the University of Hawaii. It is expected that their speech is less "pidginized" than that of a person with less education. However, this is only the beginning of a survey which will give a cross-section of the local dialects of Hawaii. Certain basic characteristics hold for all varieties. This particular study, done under the direction of Howard McKaughan, is applicable to other areas of Hawaii because of these common characteristics. The study is a part of a larger research project entitled "Descriptive Studies of Hawaiian Pidgin as Spoken in Keaukaha, Hilo, Hawaii."

I. The Phonological System of Hawaiian Pidgin

1. Consonant Sounds

		Labial	Labial-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Alveo-Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	voiceless	P			t		k	
	voiced	b			d		g	
Affricates	voiceless					č		
	voiced					j		
Fricatives Slit	voiceless		f				h	
	voiced		v					
Groove	voiceless				s	š		
	voiced				z	z		
Lateral	voiced				l			
Nasal	voiced	m			n		ŋ	
Semivowels	voiced	w				y	r	

The consonant system of Hawaiian Pidgin (HP) differs from that of Standard American English (SAE) in three major aspects:

1.1 The absence of /θ/ and /ð/: In SAE, we have two dental fricatives; one voiceless, the other voiced. For example, there is the word thigh pronounced in SAE as [θay], and thy pronounced as [ðay]. In HP, however, θ and ð are absent from the system. SAE /θ/ is replaced by HP /t/ everywhere and SAE /ð/ is replaced by HP /d/.

Hence, in HP, *thigh* is pronounced as [tʰay] and *thy* as [day].

Here is a list of words that will indicate the correspondence between SAE /θ, đ/ and HP /t, d/:

	SAE	HP
thanks	[θæ ŋks]	[tʰæ ŋs]
thing	[θiŋ]	[tʰiŋ]
think	[θiŋk]	[tʰiŋk]
third	[θəhrd]	[tʰʌhd]
arithmetic	[ariθmətik]	[arit¯ mʌtik]
mathematics	[mæθimætiks]	[mætᵗ mætiks]
Catholic	[kæθ əlik]	[kætᵗ lik]
tooth	[tuwθ]	[tuwt]
eighth	[eitθ]	[eitt]
that	[đ æt]	[d æt]
them	[đem]	[dem]
then	[đen]	[den]
there	[đehr]	[de¯ a]
this	[đis]	[dis]
three	[θriy]	[čwiy] (=/triy/)
thrill	[θril]	[čwil] (=/tril/)

In HP, *three* and *tree* are homophones. Both are pronounced as [č w͐ iy].

We notice from the phonetic transcription of HP that SAE /θ/ > HP /t/ everywhere. If the SAE /θ/ is in medial position and followed by a vowel, the HP /t/ is released with aspiration. If the medial SAE /θ/ immediately precedes a consonant, as in arithmetic, HP /t/ is unreleased.

1.2 The easy confusion of /s, z/ and /š, ž/: In SAE, the alveolar fricatives /s, z/ are distinguished from the alveo-palatal fricative /š, ž/ in two respects. First of all, they differ in the points of articulation. Secondly, this difference is supplemented by the difference in lip-rounding. SAE /š, ž/ are pronounced with rounded and protruded lips. In HP, however, this supplementary feature is lost. In other words, HP /s, z/ and /š, ž/ are pronounced with more or less the same degree of lip-rounding. With the loss of this supplementary distinctive feature, /s, z/ and /š, ž/ are not as readily distinguishable from each other in HP as in SAE. Hence, a sentence like "She sells seashells at the seashore" is likely to cause some difficulty for an SAE speaker when pronounced by a speaker of HP.

1.3 The pronunciation of HP /r/: English /r/ is not pronounced as a retroflex in HP. It is rather like the semi-vowel /w/ except that the constriction point for /r/ is at the velum whereas the constriction point for /w/ is at the lips. Phonetically, /r/ is represented as [w>]. Unfortunately, the pronunciation of [w>] is also accompanied by lip movements. Unless they are set in context or uttered in pairs, it would be quite difficult to determine the initial consonant upon hearing the following pairs of words:

weed - read
will - rill
wound - round
wet - rat

To add to the confusion, words beginning with /wh-/ are pronounced with initial [w]. Hence, why is pronounced as [way] in HP, which becomes homophonous with witch. We can only rely on context to identify the words.

1.4 Another point worth mentioning, though there is no contrast between SAE and HP, is the combination of /t, d/ with /r/. We can express the change by the following rule:

$$\begin{bmatrix} t \\ d \end{bmatrix} > \begin{bmatrix} \check{c} \\ j \end{bmatrix} \diagup \text{\_r}$$

This is a palatalization process due to dissimilation in the case of SAE, and assimilation in the case of HP. Here I will not attempt to give an explanation why this should have occurred. Examples are:

tree	[čriy]	trim	[črim]
draw	[jrɔ:]	dream	[jriym]
drum	[jrʌm]	drink	[jriŋk]

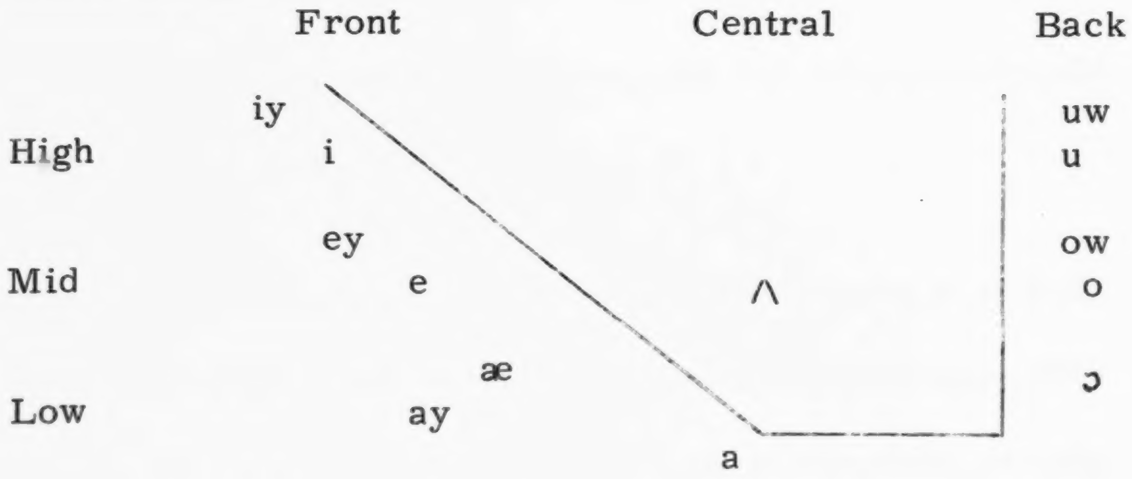
1.5 This point may also be true both for SAE and HP. Intervocalic /t, d/ are neutralized and pronounced as a flap [D].

For example:	medal	[meDl]
	metal	[meDl]
	mother	[maDa]
	brother	[braDa]
	better	[beDa]

1.6 Final /r/ is always dropped in HP. For example:

more better	[mo beDa]
sister	[sista]
over there	[o de-a] / [oDea]

2. Vowel Sounds


Front
Central
Back
High
Mid
Low
iy
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e
æ
ay
ʌ
a
uw
u
ow
o
ɔ

The vowel inventory of HP has one less entry than that of SAE. The missing entry is /ə/. In HP, all words ending in -Cer have their final syllable replaced by -Ca (C stands for any consonant). Medially, /ə/ moves into the realm of /ʌ/ as in third, [t^hʌhd], or into /a/ as in other, [ada], or into /e/, as in seven, [seven].

Other examples are:	SAE	HP
just	[jəst]	[jʌ̳st]
learn	[ləhrn]	[lʌ̳hrn]
children	[čiljrən]	[čiljre̳n]
student	[styuwdənt]	[styuwde̳n]
sister	[sistər]	[sista̳]
paper	[peypər]	[peypa̳]

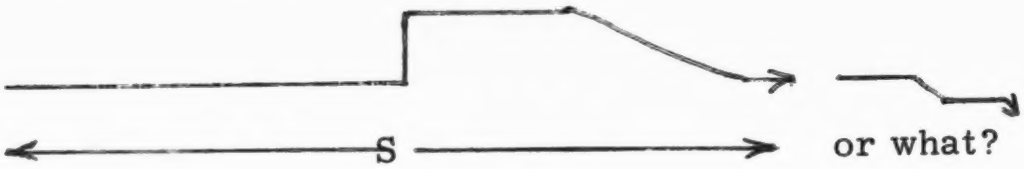
3. Intonation

Intonation may have the function of delimiting constructions. It may also reveal something of the emotional state of the speaker. We are more interested in the kind of intonation which is structurally significant.

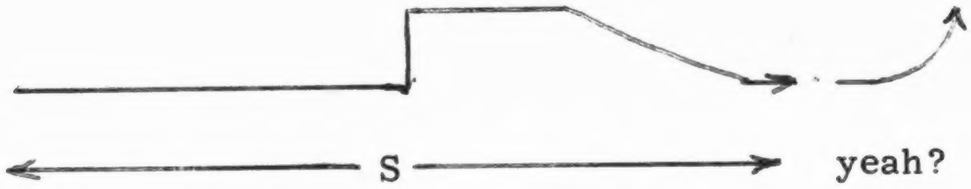
It is often said that Hawaiian Pidgin has a peculiar intonation. What is so peculiar about the intonation of HP? Here are my observations.

3.1 Question intonation. The most common way of forming a question in HP is to make a statement S, and then add to S the expression or what? or yeah? The intonation patterns are as follows:

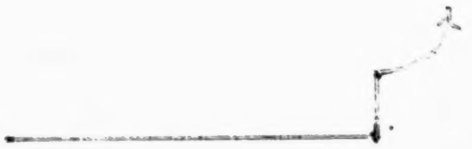
(a)



(b)



Suppose S = "You like apples," then (a) means "Do you or don't you like apples?" and (b) means "Is it true that you like apples?" These intonations differ from the common question intonation in SAE which has the form:

(c)  e.g., Do you like apples?

3.2 Negation intonation. Instead of using auxiliaries and not to form a negative sentence, HP forms its negation by simply adding no before the main verb. The stressed syllable of the main verb or of the adjectival subjective complement is lengthened. For example:

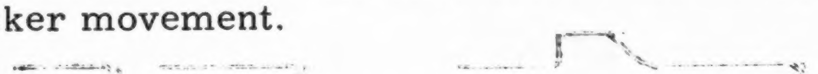
(a) I no $\overrightarrow{\text{like}}$.

(b) You no $\overrightarrow{\text{diff}}$erent from others.

(c) I no be$\overrightarrow{\text{lieve}}$.

The durations of [layk], of the syllable [diy-] in different and the syllable [-liyv] of believe are considerably much longer than they usually would be in isolated citation or in an affirmation sentence.

3.3 I have a feeling that the HP constructions delimited by intonations have shorter stretches of words as compared to equivalent constructions in SAE. This is especially true on the sentence level. HP favors simple and sometimes elliptic sentences. Embedding structures are rare, though permissible, in HP. Instead of undergoing a multiple-base transformation, the base sentences are directly given. For example, a speaker of HP would say, "You see the man over there? The man is my uncle. He stay dark and tall," instead of saying, "The dark and tall man over there is my uncle." As the stretches of words delimited by intonation become shorter, the flow of speech seems to have a quicker movement.



The sentences "I stay you come" and "I will wait for you," meaning the same thing, definitely convey different intonation and tempo. A perception experiment may be necessary before we can posit anything about the relationship between intonation and sentence lengths.

II. Syntax

1. Copulative and Stative Verbs

The copulative verb in SAE is usually replaced by another stative verb stay. In sentences containing subjective complement as in (a) and (b), stay is optional.

1.1 NP + Copula + Adj ⟹ NP + stay + Adj.

e.g.

(i) [hiy w͐iyl kiwt]

he real cute = He is very cute. (SAE)

(ii) [šiy w͐iyl priDi]

she real pretty = She is very pretty. (SAE)

(iii) [ay stey haŋgri]

I stay hungry = I am hungry. (SAE)

(iv) [šiy stey mæ riyd]

she stay married = She is married. (SAE)

(v) [hiy stey smaht]

he stay smart = He is smart. (SAE)

(vi) [šiy mæ riyd]

she married = She is married. (SAE)

1.2 NP + Copula + NP′ ⟹ NP + ⟨stay⟩ + NP′

In general, no copulative verb is used in such structure. In NP′, if the indefinite article a or an is present, it is changed to the numeral one. For example:

(i) [dey styiwdens]

they students = They are students. (SAE)

(ii) [ay wʌn styiwden]

I one student = I am a student. (SAE)

(iii) [hiy wʌn jrip]

he one drip = He is a bore. (SAE)

(iv) [dʌ gay o'de-a may ʌŋkl]

the guy over there my uncle = The man over there is my uncle. (SAE)

(v) [šiy stey wʌn prinses]

she stay one princess = She is a princess. (SAE)

1.3 NP + Copula + Loc $\Longrightarrow$ NP + stay + Loc

The copulative verb in SAE is usually replaced by stay when followed by a prepositional phrase indicating location. For example:

(i) [may perens stey hom]

my parents stay home = My parents are home. (SAE)

(ii) [may mada stey may ænti haws]

my mother stay my aunti house =
My mother is at my aunt's house. (SAE)

(iii) [hiy oDea]

he over there = He is over there. (SAE)

(iv) [hiy stey oDea]

he stay over there = He is over there. (SAE)

(v) [ay stey on dʌ bʌs]

I stay on the bus = I am on the bus. (SAE)

(vi) [hiy stey on dʌ čw̌en]

he stay on the train = He is on a train. (SAE)

(vii) [may braDas stey in dʌ yahd]

my brothers stay in the yard =
My brothers are in the yard. (SAE)

1.4 The stative verb stay, in addition to its frequent use in (a), (b), and (c) in the place of the copulative, has the function of a filling word occurring before the main verb to designate the indicative case. For example:

(i) [wen dʌ dokta wen kʌm, dʌ gay stey maki ɔlwedi]

when the doctor went come, the guy stay
maki already =

When the doctor came, the man already had
passed away. (SAE)

(ii) [šiy stey gæt mæriyd]

she stay get married = She gets married. (SAE)

(iii) [ay stey no ʌm]

I stay know him = I know him. (SAE)

2. Pronouns - personal, impersonal, and demonstrative

2.1 Personal Pronouns

Singular

	1	2	3		
			m	f	n
Nominative	ay ~ miy	yuw	hiy	šiy	--
Acc. and Dat.	miy	yuw	him (ʌm)	hʌa (ʌm)	-- (ʌm)
Genitive (Adj.)	may	yuwa	his	hʌr	--

Plural

	1	2	3
Nominative	ʌs gayz	yuw gayz	dem gayz ~ dey
Acc. and Dat.	ʌs gayz (ʌs)	yuw gayz (yuw)	dem gayz (ʌm)
Genitive (Adj.)	awa	yuw gayz (yuwa)	dem gayz (dæ a)

(i) Nominative 1st person singular has two variants [ay] and [miy]. Both can occur in the same environment and are in free variation with each other. For example:

[ay no layk] ~ [miy no layk]

I no like ~ me no like = I don't like. (SAE)

[ay no wʌw̌i] ~ [miy no wʌw̌i]

I no worry ~ me no worry = I don't worry. (SAE)

(ii) The pronoun it is never used in Hawaiian Pidgin. In general, the object is directly named and pointed at. For example:

[dʌ bʌhd wen maki]

the bird went maki = The bird died. (SAE)

[dʌ tebo wen brok]

the table went broke = The table broke. (SAE)

[dʌ tebo stey pilau]

the table stay pilau = The table is dirty. (SAE)

(iii) For plural forms, [gayz] is added to the stem to indicate the plural. It can be looked upon as a plural morpheme. For example:

[ʌs gayz no gon duw ʌm]

us guys no going do it = We are not going to do it. (SAE)

[dem gayz oDea guwd dænsa, yeah?]

them guys over there good dancer, yeah? =
Don't you think they are good dancers? (SAE)

[gow tel dem gayz] = [gow tel ʌm]

go tell them guys = Go tell them. (SAE)

[wɔč yuwa nem?]

what your name = What is your name? (SAE)

[yuw gayz tiyča wen kʌm ɔlwædiy]

you guys teacher went come already =
Your teacher came already. (SAE)

[may maDa wen mayk ʌm gow]

my mother went make (him, her, them, it) go =

My mother made him (her, it, them) go. (SAE)

(iv) For third person pronouns in the Accusative or the Dative, both singular or plural, the form [ʌm] is preferred. Eighty-five percent of the time [ʌm] is used instead of [him], [hʌa], and [dem gayz]. For example, [ay no layk ʌm] may have the following meanings:

1. I don't like him.
2. I don't like her.
3. I don't like it.
4. I don't like them.

2.2 Impersonal and Demonstrative Pronouns

this	dis	dis)	~ ʌm
that	dae t	dae t)	
these	diys ~ dis ɔl	diys)	
those	dem	dem)	
it	--	--	

(i) In the nominative case, these is often expressed as this + all, [dis ɔl]. For example:

[dis ɔl no guwd]

this all no good = (All) these are useless. (SAE)

[dis ɔl mayn]

this all mine = These are mine. (SAE)

(ii) Like the 3rd plural Accusative, [ʌm] is preferred to [dis], [dae t], [diys], and [dem]. Notice there is no equivalent for those in HP, them is used. For example:

[ay no layk m ohea, ay layk m oDea]

I no like them over here, I like them over there =
(this) (that)
I don't like (these), I like (those). (SAE)

(iii) When [m] is used in place of demonstrative pronouns, the adverbs [ohea] over here and [oDea] over there are used to avoid ambiguity, as seen in the example given under (ii).

(iv) Structures beginning with "It is . . . . . " are always avoided in HP. For example:

[ay g ta finis m]

I got to finish this = It is necessary for me to finish this. (SAE)

[yuw bæDa wimemba]

you better remember = It is important that you remember. (SAE)

[naf ɔlrediy]

(enough)
enough already = It is (sufficient). (SAE)

[pau ɔlrediy]

(finished)
pau already = It is (done). (SAE)

[tuwdey hat]

today hot = It is hot today. (SAE)

[fayv oklak naw]

five o'clock now = It is now five o'clock. (SAE)

[spuwkiy mæn!]

spooky man = Boy! It is spooky. (SAE)

2.3 The determiners:

definite	the	[d] [diy]
indefinite	a, an	[w n]

a, an is never used in HP. In its place is replaced the numeral one. [diy] occurs before a vowel and [d] occurs elsewhere.

3. Negative Sentences

3.1 One important observation regarding negative sentences in HP is that not is seldom used in the speech of my informants.

3.2 The auxiliary do is not used in HP either. Whenever a sentence is negated, instead of having the sequence do + not + V, the sequence no + V is used. For example:

[ay no layk medisin]

I no like medicine = I don't like medicine. (SAE)

[ay no gow dokta dæt m c]

I no go doctor that much = I don't see a doctor that often. (SAE)

[hiy no now]

he no know = He does not know. (SAE)

[hiy no wen k m]

he no went come = He did not come. (SAE)

[miy no jwink]

me no drink = I do not drink. (SAE)

3.3 Where there is a copulative verb plus a predicative adjective or adverb, when being negated, *no* is again used and the copulative verb is simply dropped. For example:

[ay no haepiy]

I no happy = I am not happy. (SAE)

[may g hlfwaen šiy no maewiyd]

my girlfriend, she no married = My girlfriend is not married. (SAE)

[ay no w wiyd]

I no worried = I am not worried. (SAE)

[šiy no gon bi hom]

she no going be home = She is not going to be at home. (SAE)

[šiy no stey hom]

she no stay home = She is not home. (SAE)

3.4 When a copulative verb is followed by a noun or pronoun, i.e., a subjective complement, the negation of such a sentence is done by inserting a *not* after the copulative verb. Except for *am* which becomes a vocalic [n], all other copula are eventually dropped. For example:

[ay n n t w n b y]

I am not one boy = I am not a boy. (SAE)

[siy n t w n styuwden]

she not one student = She is not a student. (SAE)

[siy n t w n witc]

she not one witch = She is not a witch. (SAE)

[yuw s a n t w n diya]

you sure not one dear = You are definitely not a dear. (SAE)

3.5 In HP, the auxiliary *can* stands for either *may* or *can*. Its negated form is *no can* in HP. For example:

[ay no ken spiyk eŋglis]

I no can speak English = I cannot speak English. (SAE)

[yuw no ken gow hom]

you no can go home = You may not go home. (SAE)

[yuw no ken tel m]

you no can tell him = You may not tell him. (SAE)

[yuw no ken tel w n lay]

you no can tell one lie = You may not tell a lie. (SAE)

[yuw no ken tel d diyfrenz]

you no can tell the difference = You cannot tell the difference. (SAE)

[yuw no ken staht dina naw]

you no can start dinner now = You may not start dinner now. (SAE)

3.6 *Can* in HP also stands for *could* or *might*. Hence *no can* also stands for *could* *not* or *might* *not*. For example:

[dey no ken faynd nobɔdiy]

they no can find nobody = They could not find anyone. (SAE)

[hiy no ken duw ʌm]

he no can do it = He (might) (should) not do it. (SAE)

3.7 *May* and *might* in (5) and (6) imply the permission to do something, not the possibility of doing something. The latter meaning of *may* and *might* is indicated by the use of *maybe*. As a result, *may* and *might* do not belong to the lexicon of HP.

3.8 When only future indicative is implied, the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, and *would* are usually replaced by [goŋ] (= *going*) in HP. The negated form is simply [no goŋ] (= *no* *going*).

For example:

[ʌs gayz no goŋ duw ʌm]

us guys no going do it = We are not going to do it. / We shall not do it. (SAE)

[hiy no goŋ bi hea]

he no going be here = He will not be here. (SAE)

[šiy no goŋ bi hom]

she no going be home = She will not be home. (SAE)

3.9 Where present perfect tense is used in SAE, the sentence is negated by replacing the verb with *never* and the infinitive form of the verb, without *to*. For example:

[miy neva siy dis mæn bif a]

me never see this man before = I have not seen this man before. / Never before have I seen this man. (SAE)

[hiy neva st diy w s n]

he never study Russian = He has not studied Russian before. (SAE)

3.10 Where simple past tense is intended in SAE, the sentence is negated by inserting never before the verb and leaving the rest of the sentence unchanged. For example:

[hiy neva now]

he never know = He did not know. (SAE)

[ay neva brok m]

I never broke it = I did not break it. (SAE)

[ay neva wen l hn eŋglis]

I never wen learn English = I did not learn English. (SAE)

3.11 (do) + not + have (no have) For example:
(does) (no get)
(no more)

[ay no m m niy]

I no more money = I don't have any money. (SAE)

[ay no m ciljwen]

I no more children = I don't have any children. (SAE)

[ay no gæt guwd gweyd]

I no get good grade = I don't have good grades. (SAE)

[ʌs gayz no mɔ biya]

us guys no more beer = We don't have any beer. (SAE)

3.12 In a negative sentence of SAE, the word any is used. In HP, any in a negative sentence is always replaced by no and thus does not belong to the lexicon. For example:

[miy no wæh dæt no mɔ]

me no wear that no more = I don't wear that any more. (SAE)

[dey no ken faynd nobɔdiy]

they no can find nobody = They could not find anybody. (SAE)

[ay no goŋ nowæh]

I no going nowhere - I am not going anywhere. (SAE)

The correspondence between SAE and HP negative sentences can be summarized in the following diagram.

Standard American English	Hawaiian Pidgin
PRESENT:	
(do) (does) + not + VP	no + VP
(am) (are) (is) + not + (adj P) (adv P)	no + (adj P) (adv P)
(cannot) (may not) + VP	no + can + VP
FUTURE:	
(shall) (will) + not + VP	no + going + VP
PAST:	
did + not + VP	never + VP
was + not + VP	never + was + VP
were + not + VP	never + were + VP
(could) (might) + not + VP	never + can + VP
(should) (would) + not + VP	no + going + VP
PRESENT PERFECT:	
(have) (has) + (not) (never) + V-en	never + V
PRESENT:	
(am) (are) (is) + not + NP	n + not + NP
any + N	no + N In negative sentence only.

4. Affirmative Sentences

4.1 There is no number agreement in HP. Only one form is used for all numbers and all persons. Let us take the verb *to go*, we simply have the following paradigm for present indicative:

S	P
I go	us guys go
you go	you guys go
he go) she go)	them guys go

4.2 For past indicative, we simply add a "prefix" [wen] (= *went*) to the verb, thus yielding the following paradigm:

S	P
I went go	us guys went go
you went go	you guys went go
he went go) she went go)	them guys went go

4.3 For future indicative, we simply add a "prefix" [gon̩] (= *going*) to the verb, thus yielding the following paradigm:

S	P
I going go	us guys going go
you going go	you guys going go
he going go) she going go)	them guys going go

4.4 Adding *just* to the past indicative, we will have the equivalent of the present perfect tense in SAE. The paradigm reads:

S	P
I just went go	us guys just went go
you just went go	you guys just went go
he just went go) she just went go)	them guys just went go

5. Interrogative Sentences

5.1 When converting a sentence with copulative verb into its interrogative, we simply raise the pitch at the end of the question. For example:

Affirmative:	/hiy jæpʌnis/ ↘	"He is Japanese."
Interrogative:	/hiy jæpʌnis/ ↗	"Is he Japanese?"

This type of question asks for a "Yes-No" answer.

5.2 The expression or what, /o w(ɔ)(a) t/, may be tagged at the end of an affirmative statement to demand a "True-False" answer for the statement. Often, if the answer is no, an explanation is required. For example:

Affirmative: /yuw go skuwl/ ↘ "You go to school."

Interrogative: /yuw go skuwl o wɔt/ ↘

"Do you go to school?" ("If not, what do you do?")

Affirmative: /hiy wen now/ ↘ "He knew."

Interrogative: /hiy wen now o wɔt/ ↘

"Did he know about it?" ("If not, why not?")

Notice that this type of interrogative sentence does not have a rising

3

pitch at the end of the sentence.

5. 3 The expression *yeah?* [yeah] is also used to demand a "Yes-No" answer, with the expectation of an answer in the affirmative. For example:

Affirmative: [šiy wiyl pw͐iytiy] ↘ "She is very pretty."

Interrogative: [šiy wiyl pw͐iytiy, yeah] ↗

"She is very pretty. Don't you think so?"

or "Don't you think she is very pretty?"

5. 4 Interrogative pronouns: *who*, *which*, *whom* is not used in HP. In its place is found *which* and the noun it refers to. For example:

[hwu wen giyv yuw dis?] ↘

who wen give you this? = Who gave you this? (SAE)

[hwu dæt?] ↘

who that? = Who is that? (SAE)

[witč bɔy yuw layk?] ↘

which boy you like? = Which boy do you like? (SAE)

[witč jw͐æs yuw layk mɔ bæDa?] ↘

which dress you like more better = Which dress do you prefer? (SAE)

5. 5 In HP, *what* and *when* are used just as they are used in SAE. For example:

[wen yuw gon kʌm?] ↘

when you going come? = When are you coming? (SAE)
(or) = When are you returning? (SAE)

[wɔt hiy wen sey?] ↘

what he wen say? = What did he say? (SAE)

[wɔt kayn fuwd yuw iyt?] ↘

what kind food you eat? = What kind of food do you eat? (SAE)

5.6 In HP, why is often replaced by how come. For example:

[haw kʌm yuw no pæs?] ↘

how come you no pass? = Why didn't you pass? (SAE)

[haw kʌm so leyt?] ↘

how come so late? = Why (is it) so late? (SAE)

5.7 In HP, how is used as it would be in SAE. However, some speakers of HP do not distinguish between how much and how many. My sample is too small to decide whether it is a universal phenomenon among speakers of HP. It may result from the loss of the plural morpheme in HP. Examples are:

[haw yuw layk may wiyviŋ?] ↘

how you like my weaving? = How do you like my weaving? (SAE)

[haw yuw duw ʌm?] ↘

how you do it? = How do you do it? (SAE)

[haw mʌč teyp yuw gɔt?] ↘

how much tape you got? = How many tapes do you have? (SAE)

[haw mʌč mʌniy yuw gɔt?] ↘

how much money you got? = How much money do you have? (SAE)

5.8 In HP, the interrogative auxiliary *do* is never used. Interrogative sentences are either formed by using interrogative pronouns, adjectives and adverbs or by adding *or what* or *yeah* to the affirmative statement, as already discussed in (2) and (3). Another way of forming the interrogative without using *do* is to raise the final pitch. For example:

Affirmative: You like her. ↘

Interrogative: You like her? ↗

Affirmative: You going come. ↘

Interrogative: You going come? ↗

6. Compound and Complex Sentences

6.1 In HP, simple sentences occur most frequently. Then come compound sentences with clauses loosely jointed together by *and* and *then*. Next come the complex sentences involving a quotation, a condition, or an indication of time. Abstract nominalizations are not found in the system. Neither are complex embedded structures. This makes the grammatical system of HP rather simple. Practically no transformational rules would be required.

6.2 Coordinating conjunctions found in HP are: *and*, *but*, *or*, and *then*. Conjunctions like *either* . . . *or* and *neither* . . . *nor* are never used. *As soon as* is often replaced by *when*.

6.3 Subordinating conjunctions found in HP are: *that*, *when*, *why*, *if* . . . *then*, *how*, *after*, and *because*. *Unless* is considered too "twisting" for the mind. The role of *since* is taken over by *after*. *Why* is sometimes replaced by *how come*.

Pidgin Tapes on File in Pacific and Asian Linguistics Institute
University of Hawaii

HP 1001
Side I: Speed 7-1/2 ips.
Informant: Lois Ikehara
Content: Lois talking about her art classes (monologue).

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois Ikehara and Amos Kotomori
Content: Words beginning with letters "b" and "c".

HP 1002
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Free conversation; touching upon movies, classes and family.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Words beginning with letters "r," "w," and "d, e, f."

HP 1003
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Words beginning with letters "d, e, f."

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Words beginning with letters "f, g, h."

HP 1004
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informant: Richard
Content: HP with Filipino accent.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Words beginning with letters "th," "r," "wh," and "w."

HP 1005
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Free conversation; Lois telling about her girlfriend's wedding.

HP 1005
Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Words beginning with the letters "h, i, j, k, l, m, n."

HP 1007
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Hawaiian Legends.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Informants: Lois and Amos
Content: Hawaiian Legends.

HP 1008
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Hawaiian Legends.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation.

HP 1009
Side I: Speed 7-1/2 ips.
Content: Hawaiian Legends.
*Quality: Poor

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation; on Boy's Day and other Japanese festivals.

HP 1010
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation; on party and dresses.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation; on drinking.

HP 1011
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation; on student employment and course requirements.

Side II: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Cooking and food (Free conversation).

HP 1012
Side I: Speed 3-3/4 ips.
Content: Free conversation.

HP 1012	Side II:	Speed 3-3/4 ips.
	Content:	Free conversation with lots of questions and answers.
HP 1013	Side I:	Speed 3-3/4 ips.
	Content:	Lois's monologue and later, conversation with Amos.
HP 1014	Side I only:	Free conversation.
HP 1015	Side I only:	Free conversation.
HP 1016	Kent Bowman's record.	

SECOND REPORT

Report of Linguistic Analysis[1]

I. Phonology

A. First Phonological Statement

I began with the Swadesh 200 items as an initial control list and have transcribed the examples I was able to elicit.

I should say to begin with that all of the speakers are residents of the Keaukaha area and, I gather, have lived there most of their lives. My speech was formed in Salt Lake City, Utah, my mother being a native of the same city and my father of Egestorf near Hannover. Besides unlocatable influences written and spoken, my idiolect must have been colored, after I was twenty, in Bakersfield (California), Zurich (Switzerland), Palo Alto (California), and most recently in Honolulu.

Of the two hundred items on the Swadesh list, only the following fourteen seemed to me not to evidence noticeable differences as between Keaukaha utterances and mine:

and
grass
if
meat
seeds
sky
star
swell
tie
turn
warm
we
wide
worm

My worksheets draw on the 186 other items and seem to lead to tentative formulation of these six divergences in Keaukaha speech:

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[1] The language data upon which the second and third reports are based consist of transcribed oral interviews with several children from the Keaukaha Project of Hawaiian Homes in Hilo, Hawaii. All were pupils of Keaukaha Elementary School. The data were gathered in 1965, 1966, and 1967. Transcriptions are on file in the Hawaii District Superintendent's Office, Hawaii Department of Education, Hilo, Hawaii.

1. Patterning of non-release and aspiration of morpheme-final consonants:

Final voiceless stops may be aspirated or unreleased.

Final voiced stops, final voiceless fricatives, and /ŋ/ may be unreleased.

The free variation of aspiration and non-release seems to be supported by co-occurring examples in the expression of *eat*, *fat*, *that*, *thick*, *wet*, *what*, and *wipe*.

Not assimilated into the summary yet are:

i) The examples from two speakers of decided aspiration between members of initial consonant clusters and some possible relationship with the instances /štrenǰ/ (*strange*) and /čhri/ (*tree*) (which phenomenon seems to occur to some extent, as I noticed in listening to recordings by the Speech Department of university students on the Hilo campus). A further development beyond such aspiration seems to occur in one of the speakers: /sĬlíp¯/ (*sleep*).

ii) The lone citation form /briđ¯d/ (*breathed*).

2. Devoicing of final consonants and two-member consonant clusters:

Final voiced single consonants may become voiceless released or unreleased consonants or partially voiced unreleased consonants. Final two-member voiced consonant clusters with alveopalatal stops or fricatives as the second member may become two-member consonant clusters with the first consonant either voiced or voiceless and the second member voiceless.

The few examples in this study show tendencies, with the single stops and fricatives preceded by a vowel seeming to follow the non-releasing pattern of 1), and with the final devoiced stops preceded by a consonant exhibiting a consistent environment: /i/ plus voiced fricative.

Further investigation in connection with this problem should focus on the devoicing of the first of the two consonants (which so far are of the same two classes, i.e., stop and nasal, which are involved in 1).

3. Non-occurrence and/or substitution of glottal stop on morpheme-final consonants. This gives some evidence of relationship with or extension of 2) above:

Final voiced consonants or voiceless stops may be deleted or replaced with a glottal stop.

The limited data can certainly not be conclusive. In any event, the anomalous status of /klau$^{?}$/ (with two examples in the short inventory) and of /driŋ¯/ certainly attract attention. Also not included in this first generalization are the following:

/sæ̂̃ đ/	sand
/sæ̃ :đ/	sand
/sa^{u}t/	salt
/oud/	old
/dIg ˊd/	digged (i. e. dug) with a released /g/

4. Disposition toward initial /w/ for traditional orthographic wh-.

5. Positional conditioning in vowels:
The following chart generalizes to this effect:

Idiolect - GG	Keaukaha English	Position
Free	Free	
au	aU	Final
Free	Checked	
∅	ɨ	Medial
e	ɛ	Medial, Final
ou	o~o:	Medial, Final
u	U~U:	Medial, Final
Checked	Free	
I	i~I:	Initial (released & non-released), Medial
ɛ	e~e:	Initial (voiced), Medial
Checked	Checked	
ɨ	U	Medial
ɨ	I	Medial
I	ɛ	Medial
æ	æ:, ɛ	Medial
a	ɔ, ɔ:	Medial

In addition, isolated examples of a /U , u/ alternation from a single speaker depart from the otherwise rather general regularity. Whether they constitute a cross-systematic analogy needs to be checked, both with this speaker and with others who might follow the same usage. In considering this aspect further, the phonological specifics will of course need to be investigated. (The other exception --the first item in the Free-Checked category--could tie in with the general drift of the Keaukaha English to minimize rather than extend what are final phonemes in other dialects. But this is hypothetical.)

6. Upgrading of stress appears not to involve vowels of the mid-front, lower mid-central, low-front and low-central varieties, or of diphthongs whose first elements are of these types. The affected vowels and diphthongs in the data are /i, I, ə, U, o, ou, ɨ, and ɔ/. All of the examples with /I/ contrast in my speech with an unstressed /ɨ/. I am supposing that the whole phenomenon of upgraded stress and its association in some cases with apparent vowel shift is an exceedingly complicated situation, probably also involved with evident diphthongization of single vowels (or extended diphthongization of simpler diphthongs) in morphemes in my idiolect. Moreover, I have not at this point dealt with a considerable number of examples in which I have intuited some divergent rhythms. I feel that these rhythms might also be related to possible phonemic lengthening, which I intend to follow up on in connection with the presence or absence of post-vocalic /r/. Nor does this present formulation take into account these examples of an onset-sort of diphthong:

s^{I}i	see
s^{I}i	sea
s$^{\varepsilon}$ɛ́	say
f^{i}ú	(corrected to fyu)
n$^{ə́}$ouzd	nosed

II. Comparative Syntax

A. Noun Phrase

1. Determiner - Noun

The transcribed texts exhibit the following determiner-noun system, including possessive pronouns. Variations from Idiolect CK and Idiolect KK which occur in Idiolect GG are recorded in the third column.

Schedule I

Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
a water		(a lake (some water
a hall		
a different church		
a Haili church		the ___
a pole		the ___
a money bank		
a minute		
a clumsy		___(?)
a fish		
a package		___(paper bag, sack)
a bathroom		the ___
a bed		the ___
a peanut package		
a boat		
a note		
	a poor practice	
	a girl	
	a wave	
	a map	
	a book	
	a little while	
	a tape recorder	
	a Disneyland stuff	the ___
	a tape record	the ___-er
	a cookie	
the one		
the bank		
the money		
the twenty dollars		
it the dice		(them (∅ the dice
the tape		
the singers		
the outer limits		___(outer strings)
the lady		
the other folks		(the others (___

Schedule I (continued)

Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
the tape recorder		
the stuff		
the eyes		
the song		
the tape		
the six graders		___-th___
the poi		(Ø) (some) ___
	the ball	
	the runner	
	the name	
	the hall	
	the only one	
	the ace pitcher	
	the coach	
	the bag	
	the third base coach	
	the catcher	
	the pitcher	
	the time	
	the first one	
	the map	
	the world	
	the thing	
	the ice box	
	the Craig	Ø ___
same school		the ___
white shirt		a ___
blue pants		
dime		a ___
turn		a ___
different		a ___ one
church		
money		(some) (the ___)
heads		
tail		___s
banking		___?
crabs		
plane		___s
boat		___s
school		

Schedule I (continued)

Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
permission		
piece		the ___ (cord, string)
coke		a ___
dice		
big kind		a ___
red kind		a ___
peanuts		
money		
	best hitters	
	home	
	bat	
	baseball	
	batman	
	Christmas	
	same	the ___
	Mites	the ___
	Cardinals	the ___
	bicycle	a ___
	toilet bowl	a ___
	sunflower seed	___s
	money	some ___
this song		
like this another one		the other one like this
this school		
this kind car		___of___
this		
this one		
this kind		
this way		
one of this cards		___these___
	this	
	this one	
that kind		
that round (thing)		
that		
	that time	
	that thing	
	that	
whose one		___∅
whose		

Schedule I (continued)

Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
one		
the one		
the other one		
another one		
sort of a yellow one		
one cord		a ___
one last look		a (fast, good, quick) ___
one of my best sister		___s
one this kind		___of___
one more		(another one, (___)
∅ (You gotta give to Mabel)		(one, it)
	one name	a ___
	the other girls	
a little part of 'em		(___(bit)___ (it, the song)
all		
all these		
all these nuts		
all that yard		
all kind of song		___s of ___s
lot (of fun)		a ___
lots of money		
some peanuts		
some word		___s
more riddles		
two o'clock		
the twenty dollars		
five dollars		
four dollar		___s
five dollar		___s
	four pitchers	
	first place	
	fourth place	
	last year	
	last place	
mine's one		mine
my leg		
my picture		
my turn		

Schedule I (continued)

Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
my sister Pearl		
my cousin Phoebe		
my father		
your hand		
your phone number		
yours		
our house		
somebody's house		
	my eyes	
	mine	
	our baseball team	
	his name	
	GG's name	
	GG name	___'s___
	somebody name	___'s___

In the interests of the Language Development Project, the following abstractions have been made. Schedule II displays a comparison for each determiner and for the Keaukaha idiolects individually, of the number and kinds of combining forms which concur and which differ with Idiolect GG. An equal sign indicates concurrence, and differences appear explicitly in the vertical column marked "GG."

Schedule II

Determiner		Speaker	No. of Occur.	GG
a	a N	CK	10	=
		KK	8	=
	a N	CK	4	the N
		KK	2	
	a water	CK	1	(a lake, some water)
the	the N	CK	20	=
		KK	22	=

Schedule II (continued)

Determiner	NP	Speaker	No. of Occur.	GG
	the other folks	CK	1	(the others, (___
	the poi	CK	1	(∅) (some) poi
	it the dice	CK	1	(them) (∅ the dice)
∅	∅ (adj) N	CK	9	=
		KK	9	=
	∅ N, sing	CK	3	∅ N, pl
		KK	1	
	∅ (adj) N	CK	6	a (adj) N
		KK	2	
	different	CK	1	a ___ one
	∅ (adj) N	CK	2	the (adj) N
		KK	5	
	money	CK	1	(the) (some) ___
		KK	1	some ___
	(go) banking	CK	1	(do the ___) (be the bank)
this	this N	CK	4	=
	this one	CK	7	=
		KK	1	=
	this	CK	5	=
		KK	8	=
	this kind car	CK	1	___ of ___
	one of this cards	CK	1	___ these ___

Schedule II (continued)

Determiner	NP	Speaker	No. of Occur.	GG
that	that (adj) N	CK	2	=
		KK	5	=
	that	CK	4	=
		KK	6	=
whose	whose	CK	1	=
	whose one	CK	4	whose
one other another	one	CK	3	=
	the other one	CK	1	=
	the other girls	KK	1	=
	another one	CK	1	=
	sort of a yellow one	CK	1	=
	like this another one	CK	1	the other one like this
	one this kind	CK	1	___of___
	one more	CK	1	(another one) (___)
	one (adj) N	CK	2	a (adj) N
		KK	1	
	one of my best sister	CK	1	___s
	∅ (You gotta give it Mabel)	CK	1	(one) (it)
a little	a little part of em	CK	1	___bit___ (it, the song)
all lot lots	all	CK	1	=
	all (det) N	CK	3	=

Schedule II (continued)

Determiner	NP	Speaker	No. of Occur.	GG
	all kind of song	CK	1	___s of ___s
	all kind plants	CK	1	___s of ___
	lot (of fun)	CK	1	a___
	lots of money	CK	1	=
some	some N, plural	CK	2	=
	some N, sing	CK	1	___s
more	more riddles	CK	1	= (?)
2, 3 . . .	___ o'clock	CK	1	=
first . . .	the 20 dollars	CK	2	=
	the ___ dollars	KK	1	=
	___ dollar	CK	2	___s
	the ___ graders	CK	1	___-th___
	first) fourth) N. last)	KK	5	=
"poss"	my N (N)	CK KK	6 1	= =
	your N (N)	CK	2	=
	our N	CK	1	=
	somebody's N	CK	1	=
	yours	CK	1	=
	mine's one	CK	1	mine

Schedule II (continued)

Determiner	NP	Speaker	No. of Occur.	GG
	She make her own	CK	1	(She did it herself) (write)
	his N	KK	1	=
	mine	KK	1	=
	GG's N	KK	1	=
	GG N	KK	1	___'s N
	somebody N	KK	1	___'s N
plenty	plenty time	KK	1	___of___
every	every time	KK	1	=
what	what kind	KK	1	=
how	how ugly handwriting	KK	1	what ___

These schedules can now be used to show the particular phrases in the system of Idiolect GG for which materials would need to be developed. Also to be obtained from these two sources is specific information in each case as to the forms in the systems of the Keaukaha idiolects which seem to be comparable, as well as information as to whether or not and to what extent structures similar to the target items are already used by either speaker of the first dialect:

Schedule III

Target Determiner	Keaukaha Structures	No. of Recorded Occurrences		Target Structures	Structures used Similar to Target	
		CK	KK		CK	KK
a	∅ N	1		___lot (of fun)	10	8
	∅ (adj) N	6	2	___(adj) N		
	one (adj) N, sing	2	1	___(adj) N, sing		
the	a N	4	2	___N, sing, mass	20	22
	∅ (adj) N	2	5	___(adj) N, sing, plural		
∅	the Craig		1	___N, prop	9	9
some	a N, mass		1	___N, mass	2	
the some	∅ N, mass	1	1	___N, mass		
∅ some	the N, mass		1	___N, mass		
∅	∅ N, sing	3	1	___N, gen pl	4	
. . . N, pl	some) five) all kind of) N, sing one of my best)	6		___		
whose	___one	4		___		
mine	___'s one	1		___		

Schedule III (continued)

Target Deter-miner	Keaukaha Structures	No. of Recorded Occurrences CK	KK	Target Structures	Structures used Similar to Target CK	KK
what	how (adj) N		1	___(adj) N		
a ___ one	different	1		a different one		
one it	∅	1		___	3	3
___of___	this kind car	1		___		
	one this kind	1		___	5	
	plenty time		1	___		
___these___	one of this cards	1		___		
another one	one more	1		___	1	
. . -th. .	the six graders	1		- -		

2. Noun Phrase Substitutes

A survey of the texts for the number of instances of the usual determiners appearing as substitutes or function nouns reveals the following:

Substitute	CK	KK
this	5	8
that	4	3
whose	1	
one	3	
the one	1	
this one	7	1
another one	1	
the other one	1	
sort of a yellow one	1	
the only one		1
the first one		1
all	1	
yours	1	
what	1	7
mine		1

In addition, Text 1 includes these apparent substitutes:

a) like this another one
b) mine's one
c) whose one[1]
d) the other folks[2]
e) different[3]

In the course of considering this substitute class generally, two other points might be made. The first is the frequent absence in predications of what would most often be one or it in Idiolect GG. An example appears in Text 1: "You gotta give to Mabel," in which the referent was an additional card in the game that was being played and therefore one would be the most likely substitute. This is not a lone instance, but is a type that seems to be fairly prevalent in Hawaiian English.

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[1] Cf. "the junk one," from another text. The speaker was a kindergartner.

[2] Internal evidence for such a classification rests on "Lee folks house," on the same page of Text 1.

[3] Evidence in the same text: "(They) go a different church. I go different." Also, another speaker, Gary Alameda, who was the other person in the first part of Text 2 recorded the following: "This two is the same. This two is the different."

Analogies Between Hawaiian and General American English

Keaukaha Idiolect(s)	Contrast in Idiolect GG
C + S e.g: Neat this car. Worse da brig.	S + be + C
O + S + V e.g: Small crabs she not scared. This song we called "Mary Had a Baby." How ugly handwriting you get.	S + V + O
C + S + V e.g: It's fifteen I have to go. Like this I have to. For Piinoua, that mean.	S + V + C
$S + V + adv^{T} + \begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix}$ e.g: I ate last night the poi. We may go sometime on a boat.	$S + V + \begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix} + adv^{T}$
S + V + conj e.g: I know all kind of song but. I don't know how to play but. They practice but.	conj + S + V
_____________DA______________ e.g: How much, Gloria, you gotta go?	(DA_________________) (_________________DA)
Qu: $S + V + \begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix}$ e.g: It's spooky? You buy one up? You going down by Lee folks house first?	Qu: $V + S + \begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix}$

Analogies Between Hawaiian and General American English (continued)

Keaukaha Idiolect(s)	Contrast in Idiolect GG
Qu: $\begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix} + S + V$ e.g: Pencil, can keep? Oh, hard you gotta work, eh?	Qu: $Aux + S + V + \begin{matrix}(O)\\(C)\end{matrix}$
$N^{1st\ p} + N^{2,3\ p}\ (+\ N^{2,3p})$ e.g: Me, Mabel and Marlene . . . me and my sister	$N^{2,3\ p}\ (+\ N^{2,3\ p}) + N^{1st\ p}$
adj + N + qual e.g: nice color very	qual + adj + N
N + adj + adj e.g: a fish big kind red kind	adj (+ adj) + N
RA phrase + NP e.g: like this another one	NP + RA phrase

The question is, in Idiolect CK, is it not possible that one (in (a) under Noun Phrase Substitutes) is a substitute derived from something like this kind car, and that (b), even if a parallel derivation does not exist, might still be an item structured analogously to (a), with the substitute being the initial morpheme?

B. Prepositional and Infinitive Phrases

Prepositions contrast considerably between Hawaiian English dialects and other English dialects. Schedule IV shows examples from the transcriptions.

Schedule IV

Prepositions

Keaukaha Idiolect(s)	Contrast in Idiolect GG
I want everybody to meet together for our house.	at
∅ two o'clock	at

Schedule IV (continued)

Prepositions

Keaukaha Idiolect(s)	Contrast in Idiolect GG
He's looking in a book.	at
on (a) pole	by (the)
We wen(t) on March or April.	in
out the other side (of town)	on
Go more out	on (particle?)
in over there	over there
Now got fix one this kind	of (?)
You go somebody's house	to
They go ∅ a different church.	to
I go ∅ different.	to (a ___ one)
We lost ∅ Cardinals.	to (the)
I went over to with 'em	∅ - ∅
(Do you have recess in the afternoon?) No, only for now.	∅

The high incidence of contrast in the Appendix involving for[1] suggests a possible connection with Hawaiian equivalents for the "infinitive" in other dialects. An example using for was included in the earlier outline labeled "V cluster - inf": "It's too big for go (under) bridge."

In recent weeks, one of the broadcasters on KHVH radio was heard to say, "...you don't take all night for get home," and in the Honolulu Star-Bulletin of June 23, 1966, were included two examples with the preposition:

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[1] The total is 9 among 27 items, 6 of which are S-V contrasts.

i) "You got right for a lawyer what you like or to make talk-talk wit anybody what you like, eh?"

ii) "You also got da right for one lawyer to come stay here while we talk-talk."

It will be seen from the accompanying copy of the earlier outline, as well as from Schedule IV and the Appendix that to, which is also an alternative in the regular infinitive phrase, seems to be involved in some confusion. Schedule V makes explicit the contrasts on this point, taken from the complete transcriptions of Text 1 and Text 2. Most of the items come from Idiolect CK; only those starred appear in Idiolect KK.

Schedule V

Infinitives

Keaukaha Idiolect(s)	Contrast in Idiolect GG
. . . for buy something	to
I get too much for go	to
I wish ∅ present	to
I no want ∅ swing	to
I want ∅ try	to
I like ∅ be the bank	to
Want me ∅ be the bank?	to
You got ∅ put the stuff in here	to
I'm gon' ∅ count em	to
Now got ∅ fix one this kind	to
You going ∅ buy it?	to
I going ∅ divide them	to
What's us going ∅ sing now?	to
I was go ∅ write you a note	-ing to
I like ∅ try *	would ___ to
I go ∅ eat sunflower seed	am ___ -ing to

In the interest of teaching on this point, it should be observed, however, that these 14 items from Idiolect CK are accompanied in her text by 43 instances of what would be identical infinitive phrases in Idiolect GG, and that the two instances from Idiolect KK occur along with 6 regular infinitive phrases.

C. Subject-Verb Concord -- Verb Phrase

The situation as to subject-verb concord is reflected in both the Appendix and in the two separate, limited texts as similarly significant from a contrastive point of view. The following tabulation classifies the kinds of differences between the two Keaukaha speakers and Idiolect GG, and gives the number of changes that would be involved from the former to the latter:

	NP	VP changes to Idiolect GG	
		Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK
a)	N^{sg} (given)		
	Change to V^{sg}	17	5
b)	N^{pl} (given)		
	Change to V^{pl}	4	0
c)	N^{sg} (given)		
	(Aux or V $\emptyset$) Give Aux^{sg}	38	12
	N^{sg} (implied)*	3	0
d)	N^{pl} (given)		
	(Aux or V $\emptyset$) Give Aux^{pl}	19	2
	N^{pl} (implied)*	4	
e)	Change $V^{non\text{-}past}$ to V^{past}	12	3
		NP changes to Idiolect GG	
f)	N^{sg} (implied)*		
	Give N^{sg}	5	1
g)	N^{pl} (implied)*		
	Give N^{pl}	2	2

There are no duplicated items in this tabulation. In other words, the total of implied subjects for Idiolect CK is 14, and for Idiolect KK it is 3.

This data reveals the fact that changes from Idiolect CK to Idiolect GG would number 104, out of 268 total transcribed predications; that is, there are differences involving subject-verb concord in 38.81% of the total predications for the first speaker. For the second speaker comparable figures are 25 differences from a total of 101 predications, or a percentage of 24.75 differences involving subject-verb concord as used in Idiolect GG.

Schedule VI presents the detailed information from which the above seven classifications are taken. Forms which are underlined do not occur in the two Keaukaha texts, and numerals following an expression indicate the total number of occurrences if it is two or more. The asterisk locates instances of unstated, implied subjects.

Schedule VI

Contrasts in Subject-Verb Concord Relative to Idiolect GG

Form appearing in Text	Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK
$V^{non\ past}$		he hits
	she goes	
	she has 3	
	she knows 2	
	she stops	
	she wants 4	
	it costs	
		who calls me Kelvin?
		that means
	Gordon goes	
	Johnna wants	
	(here) comes Suzie S. another one	
get		Who has gets money?
got	my cousin has one of this	
haves	What is that she has over here?	
V^{sg}	Heads are . . .	
	What are (we) going to sing now?	
	The singers were . . .	
went	We ('ll) go on March or April.	

Schedule VI (continued)

Contrasts in Subject-Verb Concord Relative to Idiolect GG

Form appearing in Text	Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK
$\emptyset$	I am starting all over.	
	I am supposed to have	
	I am going to go back	
	I am going to say . . .	
		I am going to eat sunflower seed.
	I $\substack{\text{am} \\ \text{'d be}}$ scared to ask	he is still looking
	this car is better	
	this is for me	
	I want to see if the tape is running	
	That is where Gordon live	
	What I have to give you folks is the money first.	
	*If I push this, is it still running?	
		Is the thing moving?
	What is this? 5	What is this?
		What is that? 3
		What is his name?
	Where is yours, Yvonne?	
		Where is the ice box?
		Who is doing that?
	I don't like Gordon.	
	I don't want to buy it	
	I don't want to sing	
	I don't know	I don't know the name of the hall
	She doesn't want to buy it	
	She doesn't know	
		It doesn't matter
	Did you give Gordon dime?	
	What do I mean?	
	*Do I have to push this down?	
	*Should I sing it?	
	What should I say?	
	I (wi)ll be the bank	
	I (wi)ll take it	

Schedule VI (continued)

Contrasts in Subject-Verb Concord Relative to Idiolect GG

Form appearing in Text	Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK
∅ (con.)	I (wi)ll hold it	
	I (wi)ll be the bank myself	
	You (wi)ll get one in a bathroom	
	I (wi)ll) (am going to) tell you	
	I (wi)ll) (am going to) play it now	
	she (wi)ll) (is going to) buy it	
	I (wi)ll) (want to) buy it	
	I would like to be the bank	
	I would like be the bank	
		I would like to try
	I was going to write you...	
. . . .		
∅	*You are supposed to take one	
	*(We) are going to sing now	
	What time are you coming back?	
	What are (we) going to sing?	
	Where are you going to be?	
	*Are you tired?	
	Are you going to sing?	
	Are you going somebody's house?	
	Are you going to start without permission?	
	Are you going to run off two?	
	Are you going to meet the two?	
	Are you going to buy it?	
	Do you want it?	
	Do you want this?	
	*Do you want me to be the bank?	
	Do you want (one) (some) (any) (...) 4	
	Do you like " 2	
	Do you know how to play?	
	Don't you like it?	

Schedule VI (continued)

Contrasts in Subject-Verb Concord Relative to Idiolect GG

Form appearing in Text	Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK
∅ (con.)		What do you say out there? What do you call this? 2
got	What have you got? We will sing "Tiny B."	
	(Have) you got some peanuts? (Do) you have some peanuts?	
. . . .		
$V^{non\ past}$	I asked I had... I moved ... I said ... 4 you showed he played she said she wanted Yvonne said	
hitted		I hit
were		I was
stoled		he stole
. . . .		
*∅	I forgot the other one I got one this kind I got to shake that	
		I got to go home
	I have to give you I want to say	
. . . .		
*∅	We can You got to go	We got a wave over here Can $\frac{(\text{we})}{(\text{I}\ )}$ open it?

D. Clause Structure in Kernel Statements

Five types of kernel statements are shared by the two speakers. The first speaker used only a single item each in three different types beyond those five, and the second speaker's repertory of kernel types is confined as far as the transcription goes to the five shared types. Schedule VII gives this generalization in detail, proceeding from greatest to least total frequency of occurrence:

Schedule VII

Kernel Types

Structure Type	CK	KK	Total Occur.
(S) + (aux) V + inf	51	5	56
(adv) S + (aux)V + N (+ adv)	32	11	43
$S + \underline{\text{be}} + \begin{matrix}\text{(N)}\\ \text{(adj)}\end{matrix}$ (+ adv)	20	5	25
(adv) S + V (+ adv)	15	5	21
S + (aux) $V^{\underline{\text{ing}}}$ + N (+ adv)	1	5	6
S + adj	1		1
S_a + adv^{loc} (prep + N)	1		1
S + $V^{\underline{\text{ing}}}$ + adv^{man}	1		1
	123	31	154

THIRD REPORT

Supplementing and Summarizing Report of Linguistic Analysis

I. Second Phonological Statement

The purpose of this section is to make more explicit the information which was presented in the First Phonological Statement.

The overall consonant inventory found in this study of Keaukaha English does not differ from that of my idiolect. It appears however that there are marked distributional differences as to both phonemes and allophones.

Among the 200 words in the Swadesh list, tree appears five times as /triy/ and once as /čriy/; dry, eight times as /dray/ and once as /čray/. Thirteen elicitations of thick, thin, and think show /θ/ and two, /đ/. (Instances of initial /t/ occur outside the 200-word list, in such words as thirty and thirteen.) The voiceless fricative is recorded in all instances of three and throw in this list, but Idiolect CK also shows /triy/ once, on page 42 of the transcription, along with several occurrences of /θriy/ in the same informal situation. As to the voiced fricative (in that, there, they, this, and thou), there are eleven occurrences of /đ/ and five of /d/, along with a /θ/, which appeared with the reading of the unfamiliar thou.

The fourth divergence, listed as "disposition toward initial /w/ for traditional orthographic wh-" in the First Phonological Statement, appears in five items:

		No. of Occurrences	Totals
what	/w/	9	
when	/w/	6	
where	/w/	4	
white	/w/	10	29
	/hw/	1	1

The "disposition" turns out here to be 29:1.

Briefly then, these variants of initial phonemes are as follows:

Keaukaha English	Idiolect GG
/t # r/ /č	#/tr/
/d # r/ /č	#/dr/
/θ #/t V/ /đ	#/θV/
/θ # r/ /t	#/θr/
/đ #/d V/ /θ	#/đV/
/w/ # /hw/	#/hw/

In every case except the last, the frequency is highest for the phoneme similar to that used in Idiolect GG; the variants occurring in this list constitute a very small proportion.

Some allophonic differences in pre-vocalic position are also in evidence in the data accompanying the First Phonological Statement. In pronouncing play, in which the voiceless stop is relatively unaspirated in Idiolect GG, there are two instances out of seven of aspiration. With spit and split, the voiceless stop is aspirated three times and unaspirated three times. The initial sounds in scratch, skin, sky, smoke, and smooth have been recorded as /s/, the same as they would be in Idiolect GG. But with sleep, small, smell, snake, snow, spit, and split there seems to be free variation, with five markedly aspirated sibilants and 30 of the usual, less aspirated kind. An exceptional divergence is shown by Idiolect KK here, where instead of the single sibilant before a consonant followed by a vowel, there is the variant [si] in sleep, small, smell, snake, and snow. One other speaker among the informants duplicates this same divergence in her pronunciation of the word small.

An intervocalic preference on the part of Keaukaha speakers for the allophone [t] as against [ʔ], where the reverse seems to be the habit with Idiolect GG, is evidenced in the word rotten. The one instance of the glottal stop is recorded for the only teenage informant in the group studied here. Idiolect CK, Idiolect KK and one other use a distinct stop (preference for which is also recorded elsewhere in such words as button and kitten).

These allophonic differences are summarized here:

Keaukaha English	Idiolect GG
# [p] [p']	#[p] 1
#s [p] [p']	#s[p] V 1
# [s] [s'] [si]	#[s] C
V [t] [ʔ] V	V [ʔ] [t] V

As indicated already, the frequencies for allophonic differences of distribution, when all are contrasted with Idiolect GG, show a predominating pattern as in that idiolect, in only the first and third pair. The occurrences of variants is numerically equal in the second pair, and transposed in the fourth.

All of the foregoing, extracted from the data in the 200-word list as now completed, is an explicit supplement to the First Phonological Statement. The following will elaborate upon divergences (1), (2) and (3) of the earlier presentation, regarding final consonants and consonant clusters.

As a matter of fact, all three divergences further reveal differences in allophonic distribution. Here is a fairly complete tabulation of the Keaukaha occurrences as compared with Idiolect GG:

Keaukaha English			Idiolect GG
Total Recorded Occurrences		Citation Forms	
8	[-p$^{-(+)}$][1]	rope, sharp, sleep, wipe	[-p]
6	[-p]	rope, sharp, sleep	[-p']
3	[-p']	rope, wipe	[-p^{-}]
73	[-t$^{-(+)}$]	at, bite, bit, cut, fat, dust, eat fight, foot, float, fruit, heart, hit, left, night, not, right, root, salt, meat, short, sit, straight, spit, that, split, vomit, wet, what, white	[-t]
64	[-t]	at, bite, count, cut, eat, fat, fight, float, foot, fruit, heart, hit, hunt, left, meat, not, night, right, root, sit, salt, short, split, wet straight, vomit, what, white	[-t']
28	[-t']	eat, fat, fight, float, foot, heart, hit, hunt, right, spit, split, that, root, wet, what, white, at, salt, straight	[-t^{-}]
19	[- ˀ]	bite, count, dust, that, fight, float, heart, night, right, salt, short, what white	

---

[1] This notation indicates an unreleased phone, which in some instances is released after the initial holding.

Keaukaha English			Idiolect GG
Total Recorded Occurrences		Citation Forms	
11	[-∅]	count, dust, eat, float, left, night	
32	[-k]	back, bark, black, lake, neck, smoke, snake, stick, such, think, walk	[-k]
20	[-$k^{-(+)}$]	back, bark, black, neck, smoke, snake, stick, such, thick, think, walk	[-k']
11	[-k']	drink, lake, neck, stick, such, thick	[-k^{-}]
2	[-ʔ]	drink	
2	[-∅]	drink	
4	[-$b^{-(+)}$]	rub, stab	[-b]
4	[-b]	rub, stab	[-b^{-}]
53	[-d]	and, bad, blood, child, cold, good, hand, head, hold, husband, leftside, old, red, rightside, road, sand, seed, stand, wide, wind	[-d]
28	[-$d^{-(+)}$]	bad, blood, child, old, cloud, cold, good, red, head, hold, husband, leftside, road, wide	
24	[-∅]	and, cold, good, hand, hold, husband, old, leftside, sand, stand	

Keaukaha English			Idiolect GG
Total Recorded Occurrences		Citation Forms	
3	[-]	cloud, road	
2	[-t]	stand, freezed	
1	[-d][2]	red	
21	[-g]	big, dig, dog, leg	[-g]
7	[-g$^{-(+)}$]	big, dog, leg	
2	[-g]	dog, leg	
1	[-g']	big	
1	[-k]	dog	
1	[-∅]		
19	[-f]	if, leaf, wife, laugh	[-f]
1	[-f^{-}]	wife	
1	[-v]	leaf	
1	[-∅]	leaf	
15	[-v]	five, live	[-v]
2	[-v]	five	
2	[-f$^{(-)}$]	five	
1	[-]	five	
12	[-θ]	earth, mouth, tooth, with	[-θ]

---

[2] Partial devoicing.

Keaukaha English			Idiolect GG
Total Recorded Occurrences		Citation Forms	
3	[-đ]	with	
1	[-θ˭]	tooth	
1	[-t]	with	
1	[-t']	earth	
7	[-đ]	breathe, smooth	[-đ]
1	[-θ]	smooth	
82	[-z]	animals, ashes, birds, bones, child's, comes, digs, dogs, eggs, freeze, goods, hands, heads, holds, legs, men's, nose, roads, seeds, squeeze, stands, stars, words	[-z]
10	[-s]	birds, clouds, dogs, eggs, goods, husbands, woods	
1	[-z̥]	eggs	
26	[-m]	come, name, some, swim, warm, worm	[-m]
1	[-m̥]	come	
1	[-b˭]	some	
61	[-n]	bone, burn, green, man, mountain, person, rain, rotten, skin, stone, thin, turn, when, woman	[-n]

Keaukaha English			Idiolect GG
Total Recorded Occurrences		Citation Forms	
5	[-n̥]	bone, rain, thin	
2	[-ʔ]	rain	
2	[-d̚]	rotten, skin	
41	[-l]	all, animal, dull, fall, kill, pull, small, smell, swell, tail	[-l]
6	[-l̥]	all, fall, small, smell	
3	[-u]	animal, small	
3	[-∅]	small, all	
1	[-ʔ]	all	
111	[-r]	ear, far, father, fear, feather, fire, flower, four, hair, hear, here, liver, mother, near, other, water, where, river, star, there, year	[-r]
12	[-ə]	father, flower, here, mother, water, year	
3	[-∅]	far, four	
1	[-ʔ]	far	

A recapitulation would show these comparative distributions:

Total Recorded Occurrences	Keaukaha English	Idiolect GG
8	[-p$^{-(+)}$]	[-p]
6	[-p]	[-p']
3	[-p']	[-p^{-}]
73	[-t$^{-(+)}$]	[-t]
64	[-t]	[-t']
28	[-t']	[-t^{-}]
19	[-ʔ]	
11	[-∅]	
32	[-k]	[-k]
20	[-k$^{-(+)}$]	[-k']
11	[-k']	[-k^{-}]
2	[-ʔ]	
2	[-∅]	
4	[-b$^{-(+)}$]	[-b]
4	[-b]	[-b^{-}]
53	[-d]	[-d]
28	[-d$^{-(+)}$]	
24	[-∅]	
3	[-ʔ]	
2	[-t]	

Total Recorded Occurrences	Keaukaha English	Idiolect GG
1	[-d̥]	
21	[-g]	[-g]
7	[-g$^{-(+)}$]	
2	[-g̊]	
1	[-g']	
1	[-k]	
1	[-∅]	
19	[-f]	[-f]
1	[-f^{-}]	
1	[-v]	
1	[-∅]	
15	[-v]	[-v]
2	[-v̥]	
2	[-f$^{(-)}$]	
1	[-ʔ]	
12	[-θ]	[-θ]
3	[-đ]	
1	[-θ^{-}]	
1	[-t]	
1	[-t']	
7	[-đ]	[-đ]

Total Recorded Occurrences	Keaukaha English	Idiolect GG
1	[-θ]	
82	[-z]	[-z]
10	[-s]	
1	[-z̥]	
26	[-m]	[-m]
1	[-m̥]	
1	[-bˉ]	
61	[-n]	[-n]
5	[-n̥]	
2	[-ʔ]	
2	[-dˉ]	
41	[-l]	[-l]
6	[-l̥]	
3	[-u]	
3	[-∅]	
1	[-ʔ]	
111	[-r]	[-r]
12	[-θ]	
3	[-∅]	
1	[-ʔ]	

In commenting on the picture drawn by this data, it is well to note that the 200-word list is itself limited and that considerable influence could be wielded by the relatively structured nature of elicitation (by reading aloud from the written page, and attempting to use each form in some usual utterance). This summary does not call upon the transcriptions of less formal and more spontaneous and un-selfconscious speech. Therefore these observations can be taken only as suggestive for further investigation.

In all cases except the voiceless bilabial and alveolar stops, the most usual final allophone agrees with that in Idiolect GG.

Beyond this, the above summaries show in detail the "patterning of non-release and aspiration" referred to in divergence (1) of the First Phonological Statement (which are presumed to be less frequently occurring than the unaspirated variety in Idiolect GG). This is most obvious in the voiceless stops, where the bilabials and alveolars take a symmetrical rearrangement, with the velars shifting in the paradigm only as to the unreleased and aspirated allophones. But the divergence is not limited to these stops. Non-releasing is evident as variants also of the three voiced stops ([b, d, g]) and of [f] and [θ] as well. And there is an instance even of an aspirated voiced velar stop.

The only final double consonants, referred to in divergence (2) of the First Phonological Statement as appearing devoiced, are those with /z/ as the second (dissimilar) member of the final cluster in Idiolect GG. These are recorded for the words eggs, birds, clouds, dogs, goods, husbands, and words. The single consonants in final position which sometimes occur as their devoiced counterparts are [d, g, v, đ, m, n, and l].

Incidentally, this confused picture is further complicated by an apparent voicing of [f] in one expression of the word leaf.

It is difficult at this point to generalize the phenomena listed now under divergence (3), non-occurrence and/or substitution of glottal stop in morpheme-final single and double consonants.

	Keaukaha Final - in the forms listed			Keaukaha Final -∅ in the forms listed	
	Contrasting with C#	Contrasting with C_1C_2#		Contrasting with C#	Contrasting with C_1C_2#
After	what	dust	:	good	dust
Single	all	salt	:	dog	left
V	far	short	:	small	and
		heart	:	all	hand
			:	far	sand
			:	four	stand
			:		husband

	Keaukaha Final -ʔ in the forms listed			Keaukaha Final -∅ in the forms listed	
	Contrasting with C#	Contrasting with C_1C_2#		Contrasting with C#	Contrasting with C_1C_2#
After Diphthong	bite	count	:	eat	count
	fight	drink	:	leaf	drink
	night		:	night	cold
	right		:	side	hold
	white		:	float	old
	float		:		
	road		:		
	cloud		:		
	five		:		
	rain		:		

It can be seen that the information exhibits something other than a systematic distinctive principle. *All* and *far*, *night*, *dust*, and *count* and *drink* are pronounced either with or without a glottal stop in the position of the final consonant in Idiolect GG. Any conditioning environment that might be posited is contradicted by some example. Glottal stops in Keaukaha English contrast with 13 voiceless final consonants, but also with 6 voiced; there is non-occurrence in Keaukaha English of 15 voiced final consonants, but also of 6 voiceless.

The greatest contrast is in the voiced and voiceless alveolar stops from Idiolect GG, with a larger proportion of glottal stops in Keaukaha English occurring in the position of /t/, and with a larger proportion of non-occurrence in Keaukaha English of /d/ in Idiolect GG. Of the remainder involved in this contrast, 3 are voiced (/g, v, n/), and 2 are voiceless (/k, f/). For further research, one might hypothesize a general tendency of a lenis final in Idiolect GG contrasting with non-occurrence in Keaukaha English, and a fortis final consonant contrasting with a glottal stop.

II. Comparative Syntax

Clause Structure: Interrogative

This subsection extracts interrogative clause structure from the transcribed texts. It presents varieties both contrasting and coinciding with Idiolect GG, and points up from the combined picture something of the specific bidialectal nature of the two speakers in this area of syntax.

Inasmuch as the present purpose is to deal with syntax, only those questions which could somehow be construed as containing at least a part of the verbal element in a main verb phrase are included. Therefore, these are not found in the following inventory of questions:

Idiolect CK

You guys, Suzie Snowflake?
One more?
Tired?
Crowley?
Ready now?
On the tape recorder?
Still on?
AA, 'Onne?

Idiolect KK

Like that thing broke?
Through with this one?
Gary who?
What?

Two other apparent interrogatives, one incomplete or interrupted, and one which remains indeterminate to the transcriber, have been excluded as well:

Idiolect CK

will have
ow weh yuh haeftuh piys an = Oh, you the piece* on
won't have to put
(* piece = cord)

Who is your . . .

In interpreting the phonetic material, /z / is transcribed you; /j / and / y / are transcribed do you or did you.

The complete Inventory of Questions now follows. Structures in each idiolect are compared with those which would be most probable in Idiolect GG in the same situation. Structures which contrast precede those which are similar, in each subdivision of question categories. The first categories (under I) are those involving only a "tense carrier" (or auxiliary) in Idiolect GG. Then follow, under II, interrogatives employing question ("wh-") words. A third variety is that which in Idiolect GG could be either a DO-transformation, or a special question intonation with affirmative kernel statement structure.

Further subdivisions of Category I are arranged in this order:

$T^{r\,\underline{\text{DO}}}$

$T^{r\,\underline{\text{BE}}\ \overline{\text{(prog)}}}$

$T^{r\,\underline{\text{BE}}\ \text{(prog)}}$

$T^{r\,\text{Modal}}$

In the structures appearing in Idiolect GG, contrasting forms are unambiguously indicated by solid capital letters in all sections except $T^{r\,\text{Modal}}$ where the subject is the first person singular. In such instances, the form which appears in both the Keaukaha dialect and Idiolect GG is in parentheses.

Inventory of Questions Idiolect CK	I. Interrogative with $T^{r\,\text{aux}}$ Idiolect GG
Give up?	DO--S^{YOU} V (pt)
Have to sing it?	DO--S^{I} V _____
Have to push this down?	"
Know who's the lady?	DO--S^{YOU} V^{know} _____
You know how to play the outer limits?	DO--S^{you} V^{know} _____
'Vonne, you like?	DO--S^{you} V^{WANT} $\substack{\underline{\text{SOME}}\\ \text{THIS}}$
You like, Marlene?	"
You no like?	(S^{you}--DON'T $V^{\text{WANT TO PLAY}}$ (DON'T--S^{you} $V^{\text{WANT TO PLAY}}$
You want this?	DO--S^{you} V^{want} _____
You want it, Mabel?	"
You want your apple?	"

Inventory of Questions Idiolect CK	I. Interrogative with $T^{r^{aux}}$ Idiolect GG
You want?	DO--S^{you} V^{want} SOME THIS
Marlene, you want?	"
You don't want it?	= don't--S^{you} _____
Gloria, do you have a package?	=
Do you have the tape of it?	=
Did you give Gordon dime?	=
Gloria, when you fly around here, when you look down, it's spooky?	is--it _____
You were?	(were--you THERE (HAVE--you BEEN THERE
Is this you, Gloria?	=
Finish, everybody?	ARE--S^{YOU} $V^{past\ pt}$, _____
's running?	is--S^{IT} _____
You gonna tape somebody on that?	ARE--S^{you} $V^{going\ to\ V}$ _____
You gonna stay here today?	"
You gonna see something?	"
You go somebody's house and you gonna start without permission?	"
Gloria, you gonna run off two?	"
You gonna buy it?	"

Inventory of Questions Idiolect CK	I. Interrogative with $T^{r^{aux}}$ Idiolect GG
You goin' buy it?	ARE--S^{you} V^{going} TO V _____
You buy em?	ARE--S^{you} (V + ING _____ (GOING TO V _____
You buy one up?	"
She buy it?	(IS--S^{she} (V + ING _____ (GOING TO V _____ (DID--S^{she} _____
Go park right here?	ARE--S^{YOU} V + ING TO V ____
You gon down by Lee folks house first?	ARE--S^{you} V^{going} _____
After school are you goin come over here two clock?	_____ TO _____ AT _____
Are you going take the other folks riding today again?	_____ TO _____
Are we going to sit here?	=
Are you comin back?	=
Are you going over by the school?	=
Stop?	(CAN (SHOULD--S^{I} V O^{IT} (SHALL
Turn it on?	" O^{it} pt^{on}
I play it, now?	(SHOULD --$S^{(I)}$ _____ (CAN
Can we?	=
How about after school, can we go down?	=

Inventory of Questions Idiolect KK	I. Interrogative with $T^{r^{aux}}$ Idiolect GG
Give up?	DO--S^{YOU} V (pt)
Does eggs lay dogs?	DO ____
Did you never eat vaivii yet?	DIDN'T you EVER ____
Do you like candy?	=
Did you have enough sleep last night?	=
Did you see a bird by your house yesterday?	=
The thing moving?	IS--$S^{the\ thing}$ ____
Now can tell about baseball?	____ --S^{I} ____
Can op' em?	____--(WE (I ____
May I drink water?	____ (have a drink of water)
Gary, will you speak?	=

II. Interrogative with Question Words

Idiolect CK	Idiolect GG
How come you go over there?	___S^{you} ARE V + ING ____
How much, Gloria, you gotta go?	(DO--S^{you} GET to GO ——(ARE--S^{you} GOING to go
What I mean?	___DO--$S^{(I)}$ ____
What this?	___IS--S^{this}
What time you coming back?	___ARE--S^{you} ____

II. Interrogative with Question Words

Idiolect CK	Idiolect GG
What time you going home?	___ARE--S^{you} _____
What us gonna sing now?	___ARE--S^{WE} _____
Where you gonna be?	___ARE--S^{you} _____
No, where yours, Yvonne?	___IS--S^{yours}
Who bought?	(SOME ________(THIS (ONE
Who wants?	"
Who you gonna take on a tape recorder?	___ARE--S^{you} _____
How dare you?	=
What are we gonna sing?	=
What is that?	=
What is that she haves over here?	=
Where did the money go?	=
Where did your money go?	=
Where's the stuff for me to set em inside?	=
Who wants this kind?	=

Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
What his name?	___IS--_____
What that?	"

II. Interrogative with Question Words

Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
What this?	___IS--_____
What you say over there?	(ARE--S^{you} V + ING _____ ___(DID--S^{you} _____
What are called?	___--S^{THEY} _____
What you call this?	___DO--S^{you} _____
Oh, who get money?	(HAS ___-- (GETS _____ (GOT
Who's do that?	(--V^{has} DONE _____ ___(--V^{DID} _____
Where the ice box?	___IS--S$^{\text{the ice box}}$
How you play	___DO--S^{you} _____
What do you see every day flying near your house?	=
How do you like that?	=
What does that mean?	=
What plane did you ride?	=
What time did you go over there?	=
What's that?	=
What's this?	=
What is this?	=
What is it?	=
What are dogs afraid of?	=

II. Interrogative with Question Words

Idiolect KK	Idiolect GG
Oh, where did you go?	=
Where is Ecuador?	=
Where is it?	=
Who's talking?	=
Who is this one for?	=

III. Interrogative with Alternate Equivalents

Idiolect CK	Idiolect GG
You mean today?	=
You mean all these?	=
You mean add some word in?	=

From this inventory it is apparent that these Keaukaha speakers are able to use interrogative structures which would be identical in Idiolect GG. This is most obvious with structures using question words. In addition, both idiolects show examples of non-contrast with $T^{r^{DO}}$ without question words, and with $T^{r^{Modal}}$.

Moreover, as Category III implies, there is a common, if limited ground for the use of the kernel statement order S--V in interrogative structures. The possibility that speakers of dialects other than Keaukaha can interpret this syntactic order as a question would, from a logical standpoint, support the high frequency of this order in all contrasting examples, which seem to amount to approximately 60% among the combined total for the Keaukaha speakers.

As to contrasting structures, the usage patterns for the two speakers differ in almost every respect. There are only two significant points of similar performance, (1) in their omission of a form of BE in wh- structures which would not be "progressive" in

Idiolect GG, and (2) in the use of expressions which omit what would be a subject in other dialects. Thus, as to (1), these examples appear:

Idiolect CK
- What this? (5 times)
- No, where yours, Yvonne?

Idiolect KK
- What his name?
- What that? (3 times)
- What this?
- Where the ice box?

These are examples of (2):

Idiolect CK
- Give up?
- Have to sing it?
- Have to push this down?
- Know who's the lady?
- Finish, everybody?
- 'S running?
- Go park right here?
- Stop?
- Turn it on?

Idiolect KK
- Give up?
- Now can tell about baseball?
- Can op' em?
- What are called?

Having made such general observations, it would now be desirable to set up overall comparative tables in order to reveal the variant along with the non-variant situation in greater detail.

	Overall Comparison			
	Idiolect CK	Idiolect KK	Combined Total	Combined Average
Total pages of text	70	40	110	
Total Questions	80	44	124	
Total *Contrasting** Questions	53	20	73	
Total *Similar** Questions	27	24	51	
Questions per page	1.14	1.10		1.127
Percentage of *Contrasting* Questions	66.24	45.45		58.87
Percentage of *Similar* Questions	33.75	54.54		41.13

* *Contrasting* and *Similar* to Idiolect GG

Overall Comparison (continued)

		Idiolect CK		Idiolect KK		Combined Total	Combined Average
CONTRASTING		Items	% of Total	Items	% of Total		
$\underline{\text{DO}} = \emptyset$	$\overline{\text{QuWds}}$	14	17.50	1	2.27	15	12.09
	Qu Wds	1	1.25	3	6.82	4	3.23
$\text{BE} = \emptyset$	$\overline{\text{prog}}\ \overline{\text{QWds}}$	1	1.25			1	.81
	$\overline{\text{prog}}$ QWds	6	7.50	6	13.64	12	9.68
	prog $\overline{\text{QWds}}$	11	13.25	1	2.27	12	9.68
	prog QWds	7	8.75			7	5.64
$\underline{\text{DO}}$) $\underline{\text{BE}}$) $= \emptyset$ T-S)	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	1	1.25			1	.81
	QWds	1	1.25	1	2.27	2	1.61
$\text{Modal} = \emptyset$	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	3	3.75	2	4.54	5	4.03
$T^{r(T\text{-}S)} = \emptyset$		2	2.50			2	1.61
$\text{Subj} = \emptyset$	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	9	11.25	3	6.82	12	9.68
	QWds			1	2.27	1	.81
$\text{Compl} = \emptyset$	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	7	8.75			7	5.64
	QWds	3	3.75			3	2.42

Overall Comparison (continued)

SIMILAR			Idiolect CK		Idiolect KK		Combined	Combined
			Items	% of Total	Items	% of Total	Total	Average
$\underline{\text{DO}}$		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	3	3.75	4	9.09	7	5.64
		QWds	2	2.50	7	15.91	9	7.26
$\underline{\text{BE}}$	$\overline{\text{prog}}$	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	1	1.25			1	.81
	$\overline{\text{prog}}$	QWds	8	10.00	11	25.00	19	15.32
	prog	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	5	6.25			5	4.03
	prog	QWds	1	1.25	1	2.27	2	1.61
$\underline{\text{DO}}$) $\underline{\text{BE}}$) T-S)		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	4	5.00			4	3.23
Modal		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	2	2.50	2	4.54	4	3.23
$T^{r}(T\text{-}S)$			1	1.25			1	.81

This information supports the previous comment. It also shows that varying contrasts exist for the two speakers with modal and with $T^{r^{DO}}$, both with and without question words (although the one example in Idiolect KK is the expression "Give up?" which no doubt was learned as an idiom in connection with puzzles and riddles).

The next tables are drawn from the same data and give a perspective that may be worthwhile for the teaching of a second dialect in Keaukaha.

These tables demonstrate more pointedly that, for these speakers, the forms of a second dialect are for the most part already in use and could therefore serve to facilitate coming into control of the sometimes-contrasting structures.

In particular, the two pairs of coinciding arrows in Table Y indicate some consistency on the part of these two speakers. Both use wh-questions, with DO and with BE in the non-progressive, in structures similar to Idiolect GG with more frequency than in structures of their own idiolects. This information should be advantageous in consolidating their command of the second dialect structures which contrast with their own. It could also be useful, for an individual using Idiolect CK, in moving to the use of DO without question words.

Table X and Table Y further emphasize the uphill nature of learning to use the progressive verb phrase. Here the speakers consistently show a greater proportion of contrasting forms.

TABLE X

			Idiolect CK		Idiolect KK	
			%		%	
			Contrasting	Identical	Contrasting	Identical
$\underline{\text{DO}}$		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	17.50 ↖	3.75	2.27 ↙	9.09
$\underline{\text{BE}}$	$\overline{\text{prog}}$	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	1.25 ←	1.25		
	prog	$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	13.25 ↖	6.25	2.27	
$\underline{\text{DO}}$) $\underline{\text{BE}}$) T-S)		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	1.25 ↙	5.00		
Modal		$\overline{\text{QWds}}$	3.75 ↖	2.50	4.54 ←	4.54

TABLE Y

			Idiolect CK %		Idiolect KK %	
			Contrasting	Identical	Contrasting	Identical
DO		QWds	1.25 ↗	2.50	6.82 ↗	15.91
BE	$\overline{\text{prog}}$	QWds	7.50 ↗	10.00	13.65 ↗	25.00
	prog	QWds	8.75 ↘	1.25		2.27
DO) BE) T-S)		QWds	1.25		2.27	

Note: Direction of the arrows in Table X and Table Y indicates the logical direction of learning load based on the speaker's current usage.

As a summary of this subsection, it seems most pertinent to make the following points:

Analytical - General

1) Keaukaha idiolects include structures which are both contrasting and similar as compared with another American English dialect.

2) Patterning of contrasts and similarities differs from idiolect to idiolect.

Comparative - Similarities

3) Both speakers sometimes use non-verbal phrases as interrogatives, as do speakers of other dialects. (Note, however, such contrasting examples as "Still on?" and "Like that thing broke?")

4) The Keaukaha use of wh-questions similar in structure to those in Idiolect GG shows a higher percentage than other varieties of the interrogative, but this category also shows considerable contrasting usage.

a) In the wh- category, each speaker can use the DO transformation and BE in equivalents of the non-progressive similarly to other American dialects.

5) Both Keaukaha speakers sometimes use the model in non-wh-questions similarly to the usage in Idiolect GG.

Comparative - Contrasts

6) One predominant contrasting syntactic pattern for the interrogative in the Keaukaha idiolects contains S--V ordering.

a) One consequence of this, especially for one speaker, seems to be negligible resort to the DO transformation.

7) Both Keaukaha speakers show a proclivity to omit BE in wh-structures which would not be progressive in Idiolect GG.

8) Keaukaha interrogative structures can omit what would be a subject in other American dialects.

9) For the Keaukaha speakers, the progressive verb phrase, even when apparently in use, contrasts to a considerable extent with equivalents in other dialects.

a) Idiolect CK presents examples, with and without wh-words, in the number of 18 patterns contrasting (omitting a form of BE) and 6 being similar to the equivalent in Idiolect GG.

b) Idiolect KK shows one contrast and no similarity in the non-wh-type question, and one similarity and no contrast in the wh-type question.

III. Summary of Analysis to Date

A. Phonology

In reviewing the phonological information gained from study of the Swadesh list, we see some of the principal characteristic differences in Keaukaha speech. Many final consonants are very frequently not released. When aspiration does occur, it seems stronger than in the dialect with which Keaukaha was compared; but this type of coarticulation generally is in less evidence than in Idiolect GG. Devoicing is another obvious phenomenon, along with an irregular pattern which involves either or both /0/ and glottal stop in the position of many finals in other American English dialects. (The devoicing seems to have been picked up in actual process in Text 2. In saying "... the catcher's sitting ..." and "... the catcher's place ...," Kendall Kelson's finals were distinctly /-zs#/.)

For reference, these differences are given below.

Non-release	/p	t		b	d	g	f		θ						
Aspiration	p	t				g									
Devoicing					d	g		v		đ	z	m	n	l	
/ʔ/ or /0/		t	k		d	g	f	v					n	l	r/

The irregular patterning of /0/ and the glottal stop can now be pointed out. With the forms which were obtained for this study, both types of variant finals appear for /t, k, d, l, r/; in the position of the voiceless alveolar stop /t/, considerably more glottal stops than zeros occur, whereas with /d/ the proportion of occurrence is reversed. For /v, n/ there are glottal stops only, and for the final in leaf there is one aberrant /∅/.

These differences, of course, affect two kinds of distribution. Non-releasing and aspiration change the allophonic distribution of a given phoneme, while devoicing and substitution of /ʔ/ or /∅/ affect phonemic distribution in a given English morpheme. Examples of the latter can be found in both texts:

CK		KK	
/lay/	like	/tiy/	team
/we/	wait	/wi/	will
/snɔfle/	snowflake	/las/	lost
/teyʔ/	take	/seʔ/	set
/gaʔ/	got	/gaʔ/	got

Since much of this distribution seems to be in free variation, the overall result is that Keaukaha speech presents an increased number of possibilities in a given situation. Because of this, communication may sometimes be interfered with across dialects, but within the Keaukaha system it could be said that speakers are by the same fact more facile linguistically in that they deal with numerically more complex units.

The Second Phonological Statement makes a point which deserves repetition. This is that, taken as a whole, this comparison shows more similarities than differences in Keaukaha speech. In all cases except /p/ and /t/, for example, the most usual final allophone agrees with that in Idiolect GG. It is only in connection with the morpheme finals that misunderstanding could arise. These finals, of course, are important in speech with natives of other dialects, and in writing, for spelling and for understanding especially of the plural morpheme /z/.

B. Lexicon

An examination of special meanings for various English vocabulary items shows the following usage, which seems to be consistent with other speakers in Hawaii.

	CK	KK
em	"they": Johnna and Bryan em go same school.	
folks	"and all ____'s group" (intimate, familiar): You goin' down by Lee folks house first? (family of Harolene and Marlene Mendonsa)	

	CK	KK
frightened		"scared": (answering "Are you scared?") No, I frightened.
get	"be": You get one in a bathroom. (There is one in the bathroom.) First not supposed to be the Hawaiian--supposed to get "Tiny Bubbles."	
get	"Have (to do)": Oh, I get too much for go!	"have": Oh, who get money?
have		"do": And when we went home, we told . . . my father and mother all the things we had at Kalapana.
hold (back)	"keep": Hold this back.	
lose		"lose to, to be beaten by": We lost Cardinals that time . . . and Cardinals won us. They won all the games, and they lost none of them . . .)
make	"do, can do": Yeah, I make that.	
more	"a lot of": This one more riddles.	
maybe	"if": No. Maybe she stop on here, I have to give her one of these. If she wanna . . . maybe she wants this or this, then she has to pay . . .	

	CK	KK
meet	"get(?)": You gonna meet the two!	
more out	"farther on": No, go more out. Go more out. (Drive farther along the street.) (Go farther on the curb here.)	
much	"far": How much, Gloria, you gotta go?	
out	"on(?)": Out the other side of town. (A considerable distance from where this was said.)	
own	"-self": No, she make her own. (She did it herself.)	
package	"paper bag, sack": Gloria, do you have a package?	
say	"ask": Then I said Yvonne if you (she) want . . . I said Yvonne you want	
tell	"ask": When I tell her to spell cat, she spell C-A-T. Yeah, you told me if you (I) wanted a peanut package. It was down by the door. And I said "me." You told her if you (she) know . . . this song . . .	
wave	"trouble, rumpus, excitement, a lot of motion, a lot going on": Is no wave. (It's OK. I was glad to do it.)	Got a wave over here.
went	"go": We went on March or April. (January 30, 1967, speaking of a coming trip to Honolulu.)	

	CK	KK
win		"beat": We won Piihonui(?) yesterday. We lost Cardinals . . . and Cardinals won us.

C. Syntax

1. NP: det + N

Some differences are evident in this part of the grammatical system. Where other American English dialects use *a*, the two Keaukaha speakers employ /0/ and *one*; where others use *the*, Keaukaha usage is *a* and /0/. With mass nouns, Idiolect GG uses *some*, *the* and /0/ in the place of Keaukaha *a*, /0/, and *the*, in the same order. Also, where plural nouns would be expected in other American English dialects, Keaukaha nouns appear to be singular. (Perhaps the above phonological scheme should include /s/ among those finals for which /ʔ/ or /0/ is substituted; or perhaps such substitution is actually accountable for this last difference.) An abstract picture of this situation is given now, showing again that there are categories (the first and second here) in which Keaukaha speakers use more non-contrasting forms, and that even where differences seem significant (in the third and last items), Keaukaha speakers more often than not are using non-contrasting forms along with their own.

det + N

Keaukaha English Forms Used		Other American English Forms Used		
/0/, one	12	a	18	$/\_\_\_N^{sg}$
a, /0/	13	the	42	$/\_\_\_N^{sg, pl, mass}$
a /0/ the	4	some the /0/	2	$/\_\_\_N^{mass}$
N^{sg}	6	N^{pl}	0	/some, five, all kind(s) of, one of my best ___
N^{sg}	4	N^{pl}	4	/ /0/ ______

3. Prepositions

The Report of Linguistic Analysis of March 31, 1967, exhibits the use of prepositions in rather full detail. At, by, in, on, and to are those occurring with different meaning in Keaukaha English than in other American English.

A special comment needs to be made here, though, because Charlotte Keanu and Kendall Kelson differ very much in their use of prepositions. The single possible contrast for him with at is in his statement, "Kalapana a boy ran across the street." With to, it is in his "We lost Cardinals." Charlotte Keanu, however, has a total of 13 variant occurrences.

Inasmuch as my pre-analytical, intuitive impression was that her speech is more different from mine than his, I have made as precise a count of the total occurrences here as possible. The conclusions are not only what is stated above as to number of types involved, but also that the text of Idiolect KK contains 3 times as many prepositional phrases as does Idiolect CK.

4. Infinitives

The picture of infinitives is similar to that of prepositions in that Idiolect CK shows 14 contrasts with Idiolect GG (either omitting to or using for), while Idiolect KK has only 2 zero occurrences of to.

The overall picture here is also similar to the situations in the phonology and in the det + N system: the total number of non-contrasts is greater for both speakers than the contrasts.

Infinitives

Contrasts		Non-contrasts	
CK	14	CK	43
KK	2	KK	6

5. S-V Agreement

The additional transcriptions do not seem to differ in this respect from the earlier ones. The Report of Linguistic Analysis of March 31 makes the point that this is an area of considerable difference. Reference is made to pages 147-151 of that report for specific forms. The analysis of usage in affirmative kernels reveals that Idiolect CK contrasts (would not have agreement between subject and verb) in one out of 1.6 predications, and that Idiolect KK contrasts in one out of 4 predications.

6. Clause Structure: Kernel Statements

A total analysis is presented here of types and tokens in this category. Compound or coordinate items have been accounted for, but complex and negatives are excluded, as are predications that remain indeterminate as to meaning or that seem to be false starts or interrupted utterances. This classification supersedes page 152 of the Report of Linguistic Analysis of March 31.

Inventory of Kernel Statements

TYPE A: (adv) S + (aux) V + N (+ adv)

Idiolect CK

I know all kind of song but.
I know only a little part of em.
Oh, (I) forgot the other one.
Me and Johnna will sing "Pearly Shells."
I like this, this one.
I move my leg.
Yeah, you told me.
I took one last look and I saw you.
Yeah, I make that.
My sister Pearl know this.
My cousin got one of this.
Hey, you get this one.
You put it on there by mine's one.
My brother took it.
I take it.
She buy it.
I hold it.
I buy it.
It cost two hundred.
I'm buying this one.
Oh, (I) was having lot of fun.
No, she make her own.
I start school more early.
I start school earlier.
Oh, I get too much for go.
I saw a fish, big kind.
We have animals in Hawaii.
I can read this all in one sentence
Oh, you guys, we're eating all these nuts.
You get one in a bathroom.

Idiolect CK

Nobody wants peanuts except me and my sister.
I say myself.
We sing "Tiny Bubbles."
Yeah, I say "One, two, three, four, five."
Me, Mabel, Harolene and Marlene, all wanted a package.
I ate last night the poi.
She had five dollar.

TOTAL 37

Idiolect KK

We won Piihonui yesterday.
I was playing first base today.
We had plenty time to get the runner out.
We lost Cardinals that time 14-1.
We lost Cardinals that time and Cardinals won us.
They have a poor practice.
(We) got a wave over here.
Oh, I got a map, the map of the world.
I know what kind.
Last year I got a bike.
He stoled mine.
I got my eyes closed.
The Craig is writing Gloria Glissmeyer's name.
Now Craig is writing Gloria Glissmeyer name.
And now he's writing somebody name but.
Now he's erasing one name.
He's got one cookie.
We're playing the champs.
We're playing the champs.
And Cardinals won us.
They won all the games.
And they lost none of them.
Today we were playing Cardinals at Maiopa.
Yeah, I got five.
I got the ace.
I got a six too.
Eh, I got a PIE.
And I got a seven.
And I pick up this one.
I got a pair.
And it almost banged him.
But he disobeyed the father.

TYPE A: (continued) Idiolect KK

We picked them most all - whole way home.
Yes, but everybody calls it bleachers.
I threw the ball straight down.

TOTAL $\frac{35}{72}$

TYPE B: (adv) S + (aux) V (+ adv)

Idiolect CK

J and B em go same school.
I starting all over.
She go a different school.
I go different.
I go a Haili church.
(We) can.
No, you can go this way or this way.
This way, you can go like this.
I do.
I come down like this.
She know how.
Oh, I know how.
No, it comes over here, Mabel.
And here come another one.
Yeah, but you do.
Oh, here come my mother, Gloria.
(We) was playing.
Yeah, I forgot already.
My father go.
We're all going back to school.
So do I. I did.
We went on March or April.

TOTAL 22

Idiolect KK

They just head for the bag and start.
And I got out at home.
Oh, yes, I do.
And he's looking in a book.
And he's writing.
And now he's stopping for a little while.
And he's still looking at a tape record.
And now (he) is looking at a Disneyland stuff.
Today we play at Maiopa.

TYPE B: (continued) Idiolect KK

We have to go to Maiopa.
Today we play at Maiopa.
Today we're playing at Maiopa.
Kalapana a boy ran across the street.
And he ran across.
That looks like Willy Mays.
They '43 just practicing.
But that looks like Honolulu ball park.
She works at the bar.
She came home eight o'clock.
(You) came too late.
I sleep ten o'clock.
Today I wake up ten o'clock.
And I woke up five o'clock.
My mother was up at four o'clock, some place around there.

TOTAL 24
46

TYPE C: S + (aux) V + inf

Idiolect CK

And Johnna want to take turn too.
I want try.
I want to stand on a pole and take my picture.
I know how to play but.
You have to have it like this.
You got to vamp first.
I like to play this one.
I like be the bank.
I know how to play this thing.
You got put the stuff in here.
I'm going to jump go next time.
I'm goin' count em once again.
He used to take it, the dice.
Now I got fix one this kind.
You got to make that kind.
(You) got to shake that.
You goin' to meet the two.
She have to go seventeen.
I goin' to go banking.
You got to pay two hundred.
I like to be the bank.

TYPE C: (continued) Idiolect CK

Yeah, she have to pay the bank.
You got to give her one card.
No, you got to give to Mabel.
Mom, (I) want stay with her.
My mother's trin' to make this in the book
Christmas, for Hallowe'en.
Yeah, she know how to spell too.
I got to divide them.
No, I got to divide them here.
I goin' divide them.
(You) supposed to take one, one for each.
Hey, everybody, I wish to present Yvonne Keanu.
I wish to present one of my best sister, Mabel,
Yvonne, Gloria, Harolene, Marlene and
Pearl and myself.
(I) want to say something.
I want to sing "Pearly Shells."
Us goin' sing now.
Oh, but I scared to ask Mr. Leithead.

TOTAL 37

Idiolect KK

(I) got go home.
I like try.
I'd like to try.
Now, I go eat sunflower seed.
And we are going to try our best to beat them.
Mrs. Silva is goin' to coach us then.
I'm going to watch first base today.
He's going to throw the ball to second base,
or else third.

TOTAL 8
45

/N
TYPE D: S + be + /adj (adv^{t})
/adv

Idiolect CK

This song will be "Mary Had a Baby."
This is a hall.
It's very neat.
That's wrong.
It's five.
That's all right.
Heads is for five.
Tail is for two.
Tail is twelve.
This one is eleven.
And this one is five.
I be the bank.
It's fifteen.
This is mine.
That's enough.
I be the bank myself.
That's two hundred.
(It) is too much money.
Yeah, it's a red kind, nice color very.
We are at school.
My name is Charlotte Keanu.
The singers was Mabel, Harolene, Marlene and Charlotte Keanu.

TOTAL 22

Idiolect KK

This is why.
She's a girl.
Alaska is right down there.
I'm a redskin.
He's so nosey.
This is the beginning of the tape on Friday.
And this is Kendall Kelson.
The name is the Cardinals.
And that's the end of my story.
The Cardinals are a good team.
My name is Kendall Kelson.
And this is Kahue.

TYPE D: (continued) Idiolect KK

And the yellow one is ripe.
And the green one is sour.
That's the position of catch the low ball.
She was, yes.
Ah, she was home.
That's early enough.

TOTAL $\frac{18}{40}$

TYPE E: S + /N
/adj
/adv

Idiolect CK

This kind car better.
This way it flat.
This for me.
That out.
Oh, you close.
I scared.
This one more better than.
This one more riddles.

TOTAL 8

Idiolect KK

No, I frightened.
I through with this one.
I through with this one.
You chicken.

TOTAL $\frac{4}{12}$

It can be seen from this inventory that

1) for both speakers the usual American English "subject" category is sometimes not included in structures A, B, and C;

2) both speakers also use structure E, in which some form of the usual American English be is not expressed; and

3) both speakers do use the progressive verb phrase (in structures A, B, and C.

Again, this seems worth comment in connection with the notable difference in Keaukaha as to the progressive, brought out in the analysis of the interrogative clause structures, page It indicates that both speakers would be moving from a familiar system in kernel statements when working on control of the progressive verb phrase in interrogatives.

7. Clause Structure: Interrogative

Reference is made here to the summary statements on this section, page 152.

8. Conclusions

The findings of this study suggest that the points of contrast, in descending order as to grammatical importance, are the following:

a. S-V agreement
b. Subject-filler in structures A, B, and C
c. V^{BE}-filler in structure E, and in the auxiliary in structures A, B, and C
d. Interrogatives
    1) V-S
    2) $T^{r(DO)}$
    3) Progressive
    4) BE in wh-questions
    5) Modal with wh-
    6) wh- with DO
e. N^{pl}
f. N^{mass}

g. Determiner substitutes
h. Devoicing, glottal stop and /∅/ in final morpheme position

The classes of preposition and infinitive draw attention to the difficulty of generalizing in this way, even for the two speakers. The speaker of Idiolect CK shows considerable contrast. But the existence of Idiolect KK indicates that the differences are not consistent in the Keaukaha dialect. This study therefore also suggests that more, and more comprehensive, analyses are desirable and necessary for an understanding of the dialect of a region, and, even more, for a realistic view of the system of any individual speaker.

FOURTH REPORT

Common Hawaiian Loanwords in English

Foreward

Nature of Word List

The following list represents a glossary of common Hawaiian loanwords in English, particularly as it is spoken in Hawaii.[1] It is intended as a tentative compilation, however, since it was tested on only a limited number of informants. In comparison with other lists on the subject,[2] this one incorporates a number of noteworthy features. (1) It includes only the current and commonly-used loanwords. (2) The words in it were derived primarily from conversational English, rather than from written sources. (3) It includes terms pertaining to flora and fauna. (4) It indicates the age groups in which the loans are commonly used. The combination of these four features within a single list makes this glossary rather unique.

Procedures Followed in Study

This study was divided into three general phases or steps, each of which required approximately one week to complete. The first consisted of compiling a preliminary word list to be tested on selected informants. Practically all of the words on this list of approximately 270 words were derived from two sources: Elbert and Tsuzaki (1967), from which came most of the terms relating to flora and fauna, and Reinecke and Tsuzaki (1967), from which the non-flora and non-fauna words were derived. The list, however, was also checked against other sources--principally, Bowman, Das (1930), Lee (1937), and Wise (1949-50).

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[1] For purposes of this study, the term "Hawaiian loanwords in English" excludes place names (for which, see Pukui and Elbert, 1966, listed in the reference section at the end of the word list) and refers to: (1) Direct borrowings in English from Hawaiian--e.g., in the technical jargon of language contact, "loanwords" (e.g., *akamai* 'smart'), "loanblends" (also referred to as "hybrid loans"; e.g., *haolefied* 'like a *haole* or white-man'), and "loanshifts" (also called "semantic loans" and "loan translations"; e.g., *hale kūkae* 'outhouse or privy'). (2) More indirect borrowings in English from Hawaiian, in the sense that Hawaiian first adopted the loans from some of the other languages spoken in Hawaii and subsequently, English borrowed these same loans from Hawaiian--e.g., *pake* 'Chinese' < Haw. *pākē* 'Chinese' < Cantonese *pak ye* 'uncle or father'; or *pipi* 'beef' < Haw. *pipi* 'beef' < Eng. *beef*.

[2] E.g., Das (1930), Lee (1937), Elbert and Tsuzaki (1967), and Reinecke and Tsuzaki (1967).

The second phase involved testing the preliminary list on a selected sample of informants, all of whom were native speakers of Hawaiian English. The sample was comprised of 26 informants, who were divided into three age groups: (1) elementary-school students in kindergarten through grade 6 (2) secondary-school students in grades 7 through 12 and (3) adults. While the bulk of the informants were from the Keaukaha area in Hilo, a few were from other parts of the state--viz., from other sections of Hilo; from Kona, Hawaii; from Kula, Maui; and from Honolulu, Oahu. In addition, an attempt was made to obtain informants of differing ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds.

The third step consisted of compiling the final version of the glossary, relying heavily on the results obtained from the informants. In short, only those words which were recognized as being common by a minimum of 80% of each of the age group samples were retained in the final list. The glossary therefore resulted in a list of 168 words, each word being coded as to the age group or groups in which it is a common loan.

Tentative Conclusions

On the basis of this study a number of conclusions may be drawn with respect to Hawaiian loans in English. First, as can be inferred from the number of items in the list, the extent of influence of Hawaiian on the vocabulary of English appears to be great, especially in comparison with the other languages spoken in Hawaii. In all probability, the total number of common loanwords from these other languages put together would not approach the figure for Hawaiian.

Secondly, the differences in the number of loanwords recognized by the three age groups seem to be very consistent and to follow a definite pattern. To wit, the elementary group came out with the smallest number (with an average recognition score of 86, of which only 61 were deemed common enough to be included on the present list); then the secondary group (with an average of 141 words recognized, of which 111 were selected for inclusion); and finally the adult group (with an average recognition score of 191, of which 156 were included in the final glossary).[3] To phrase it another way, the elementary group seemed to be the one that was least familiar with Hawaiian and the adult group the most familiar, with the secondary group falling in-between.

Thirdly, the items recognized by all age groups (i. e., those marked ESA in the list) constitute a core vocabulary of Hawaiian loanwords which will probably persist for a long time. It should be noted that although this core consists predominantly of general terms (like pau 'finished' and puka 'hole'), terms for flora and fauna (like lauhala 'pandanus tree' and opihi 'ocean limpet') are not lacking. In fact, these terms comprise approximately 28% of the whole list.

Arrangement of Word List

The word list contains the following information, arranged in the order given below: (a) The entry form of the loan in its usual anglicized spelling. (b) The phonemic transcription of the word or phrase as given in Pukui and Elbert (1965), if found in this source and if different from the entry form. (c) The derivation, in some cases. (d) The part or parts of speech of the loan in English, abbreviated as follows: n. for noun or nominal; v. for verb or verbal; adj. for adjective or adjectival; adv. for adverb or adverbial; interj. for interjection. (e) The definition or definitions of the word. (f) The age group or groups in which the word or phrase was found to be common, abbreviated as follows: E for elementary-school students, S for secondary-school students, and A for adults.

Adaptation of Hawaiian loans in English.[4] Hayes (1958) and

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[3] The figures cited here should be interpreted with caution. Because the sample was biased (i. e., the native Hawaiian component was too prominant), the specific figures are probably too high to be taken as averages for other groups in the state. The more general results (e. g., the relationships among the age groups), however, appear to be generally valid and applicable to other samples as well.

[4] Based partially on Pukui and Elbert (1966:32) and Reinecke and Tsuzaki (1967:12-13).

Kindig (1960), among others, have demonstrated the complexity of specifying the details of the pronunciation of English as used by the various linguistic and ethnic groups in Hawaii. The task of specifying such variations with respect to Hawaiian loanwords in English would undoubtedly turn out to be an equally tedious and complex problem. It is therefore considered beyond the scope of this study to treat such variations; closely related variations (pertaining to age, educational level, income, occupation, etc.) are also excluded from this study.

Nevertheless, it does not seem inappropriate to include a few general statements concerning the nature of the phonological adaptations involved. The points which follow are deemed to be common enough to be offered as generally valid statements:

1. Glottal stops (symbolized with an apostrophe) are usually dropped, so that the result may be a long vowel (e. g., ka'a ka 'to turn'), a sequence of two short vowels (e. g., ho'omalimali hoomalimali 'to flatter'), or a diphthong (e. g., ne'i nei 'here').

2. Long vowels (indicated with a macron) are usually shortened and unstressed (e. g., lānai lanai 'patio').

3. All stressed vowels (especially the long ones, if preserved) tend to be diphthongized: a [a]; e [eɪ]; ī [ɪi]; ō [oʊ]; and ū [ʊu].

4. In word final or syllable final position in diphthongs, -e and -i are usually coalesced into -i (e. g., kūkae kukai 'excrement').

5. In the positions referred to in (4) above, -o and -u are simplified to -u (e. g., pepeiao pepeiau 'ear-shaped Chinese meat pie').

6. The voiceless stops p and k (especially preceding stressed vowels) are usually pronounced with strong aspiration.

7. Diphthongs, which are rather loosely-knit sequences in Hawaiian, tend to be rendered as very closely-knit units, approximating their corresponding or closest English equivalents.

8. Stress tends to be placed on the penultimate syllable, although if the last vowel is long, the stress is kept on that syllable--e. g., [ha-o-le] for haole 'whiteman' but [ho-lo-ku] for holoku 'gown with a train.' (In the more anglicized pronunciations of

these loanwords, the tendency is to put the accent as close to the beginning of the word as possible--e.g., [háU̯-li] and [hóU̯-lə-kÙu̯]).

9. Stressed *á* is often [ʌ́] or [ə́] in pronunciations which are less assimilated to American English and [ǽ] in the very highly assimilated ones.

10. In unstressed syllables particularly, *h* tends to be dropped--e.g., *kapakáhi* > *kapakái* 'crooked.'

In a word, the general tendency in the phonological adaptation of Hawaiian loanwords in English is an adaptation toward the phonological patterns of American English.

Word List

1. ahana, ahana kokole, and many other variants /ahahana/, interj. Look out! You'll catch it! A

2. ahi /'ahi/, n. Yellowfin tuna fish (*Neothunnus macropterus*), prized as both game and food fish. A

3. aholehole, holehole /āholehole/, n. Young stage of growth of the *āhole* (*Kuhlia sandvicensis*), a fish. SA

4. aikane /aikāne/, n. 1. A friend. 2. An intimate friend. A

5. akamai, adj. Skilled; smart; intelligent; clever. SA

6. aku, n. Ocean bonito or skipjack (*Katsuwonus pelamys*), an important commercial fish. ESA

7. akulikuli /'ākulikuli/, n. A coastal herb (*Sesuvium portulacastrum*), known in many warm regions, with long, narrow leaves and small pink flowers at leaf axils which are used for leis. A

8. ali'i, n., adj. 1. A Hawaiian chief or chiefess of high rank. Originally, one of tabu rank; one of the ruling caste of early Hawaii. 2. Pertaining to chiefly rank or blood. A

9. aloha, n. 1. Love; affection; kindness. 2. Greetings; farewell; a salutation. ESA

10. aloha nui [*Aloha* + *nui*, great.] Great regard. A

11. aloha nui loa [*Aloha* + *nui* + *loa*, very.] Very great regard. A

12. aloha oe /aloha 'oe/. [*Aloha* + *'oe*, thee.] 1. Farewell to you. 2. Love to thee. 3. Greetings. SA

13. aloha party, n. [*Aloha* + Eng. *party*.] Farewell party, or occasionally a party to welcome new arrivals. A

14. aloha shirt, n. [*Aloha* + Eng. *shirt*.] A loose, brightly colored Hawaiian sport shirt. ESA

15. Aloha Week, n. [Aloha + Eng. *week*.] A week in mid October celebrated in Hawaii since 1947 with parades, feasts, and pageants. ESA

16. auwe /auwē/, interj. An exclamation of pleasurable excitement, wonder, surprise, grief, pain, condolence, etc. A

17. e /ē/, interj. Hey! Say! Oh! ESA

18. ewa /'ewa/, adj., adv. One of two common directions used in Honolulu and suburbs. *Ewa* means toward the District of Ewa (approximately S.W.) and is opposed to *waikiki*, toward Waikiki Beach (approximately N.E.), A

19. hala, n. The pandanus or screw pine (*Pandanus odoratissimus*, also called *P. tectorius*), its long, narrow leaves being used for plaiting mats, baskets, hats, and its seeds or drupes for bracelets, leis, etc. A

20. hale, n. A house. A

21. hanahana, v., n. [Reduplication of *hana*, to work.] 1. To work. 2. Labor; hard work. A

22. hanapa'a /hana pa'a/, v. [*Hana* + *pa'a*, tight or fast.] 1. To fasten or tighten. 2. To shut, close, or stop in any way. A

23. haole, n., adj. 1. A person of the white race; formerly, a foreigner. 2. Of or pertaining to the white race. ESA

24. haole cooking n. Cooking done in the American or Occidental manner, as opposed to the Oriental or Polynesian. S

25. haolefied, adj. To be or act like the *haoles* (used somewhat in a derogatory sense). A

26. hapa, adj., n. 1. A part of a thing (popularly taken to be a corruption of Eng. *half*, but not necessarily that fraction). 2. A person of mixed blood; a halfbreed. A

27. hapa haole, n., adj. 1. A person of part *haole* blood. 2. A person of mixed Hawaiian and *haole* blood; sometimes restricted to persons of only one-half (known) *haole* blood. 3. Pertaining to such a person or to his racial and social group. SA

28. hapai /hāpai/, v., adj. 1. To lift, raise, or carry. 2. To take or deliver. 3. Pregnant--i.e., carrying young. ESA

29. hapuu /hāpu'u/, n. A tree fern (*Cibotium splendens*, formerly *C. chamissoi*) with glossy yellowish wool covering the base of the leaf stocks and endemic to Hawaii. SA

30. Hauoli Makahiki Hou, n. [*Hau'oli*, happy + *makahiki*, year + *hou*, new.] Happy New Year. A

31. haupia, n. A white or gray colored pudding made of cornstarch (formerly of arrow-root) and coconut cream. ESA

32. Hawaiian, n., adj. [*Hawai'i*, Hawaii + Eng. *-an*.] 1. An individual of Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian ancestry. 2. The Hawaiian language. 3. Of or pertaining to Hawaii or the Hawaiian Islands or language. ESA

33. Hawaii nei, n. [*Hawai'i* + *nei*, this.] This Hawaii (often said affectionately). A

34. heiau, n. A place of worship of the ancient Hawaiians (only the platforms and enclosures now being left). SA

35. hemo, v., adj. 1. The primary meaning includes any type of loosening or removal: *hemo* (open) the door, *hemo* (tear out) a sheet of paper, *hemo* (cross out) a silent letter, *hemo* (take off) a shirt, etc. 2. To be separate, loose, or opened. ESA

36. hilahila, adj.,n. 1. Ashamed; bashful; flustered through bashfulness. 2. Shame; bashfulness; embarrassment. A

37. holoholo, v.,n. [Reduplication of *holo*, to walk.] 1. To go for a ride or walk. 2. The act of going for a ride or walk. ESA

38 holoku /holokū/, n. A gown tightly fitted around the body and flared at the bottom and usually with a train, of either Victorian or modern style--an adaptation of the missionary Mother Hubbard. SA

39. holomuu, n. A gown similar to the *holoku*, tightly or semi-fitted around the body but lacking a train. SA

40. honohono, n. [Short for *honohono*-*kukui*.] Basket grass (*Oplismenus* *hirtellus*). ESA

41. ho'omalimali, v.,n. [*Ho'o*, causative/simulative prefix to verbs + *malimali*, to flatter, the reduplicated form of *mali*, to beg in a soothing manner.] 1. To win, or attempt to win, favor by flattery and complaisance; to "softsoap." 2. Flattery; "softsoap"; "hooey." A

42. huhu /huhū/, v.,adj. 1. To become angry; to be angry with; to scold. 2. Angry; "wild." SA

43. hui, n. [Most likely from Haw. *hui*, with same meaning; could also be from Chinese *hui*, society.] 1. Usually, an association for a common purpose, such as planting, fishing, and the administration of land. 2. Any sort of association or club. A

44. huki, v. 1. To pull; to raise. 2. Occasionally used to mean: to push; to draw along in any way. ES

45. hukilau, n. [*Huki*, to draw + *lau*, leaves.] A large fish drive with nets, involving a large number of people and sometimes a feast. A

46. hula, n.,v. 1. A Hawaiian dance, usually to chanted music and the accompaniment of ancient Hawaiian instruments, but nowadays to any sort of accompaniment, instrumental or vocal. 2. To dance the *hula*. ESA

47. hula skirt, n. [*Hula* + Eng. *skirt*.] A grass skirt worn by a hula dancer or an imitation of such a skirt. ESA

48. huli, v., adj. 1. To face about, turn about, or turn upside down. 2. Upside down; *huli'd*. SA

49. humuhumunukunukuapuaa /humuhumu-nukunuku-a-pu'a/, n. Varieties of trigger fish (*Rhinecanthus aculeatus*, *R. rectangulus*); sometimes shortened to *humuhumu*. A

50. hupe /hūpē/, n. Nasal mucus, called "butter" or "butterees" [bʌt-ʌ-îs] by children. S

51. imu, n. An underground oven or pit for the baking or roasting of food in the Hawaiian manner. SA

52. kaa /kā/, v. To turn a rope for jumping. ESA

53. kahili /kāhili/, n. A large feather standard, symbolizing *ali'i* rank or royalty, displayed on state occasions and used in pageants. SA

54. kahili ginger, n. [*Kāhili* + Eng. *ginger*.] A ginger (*Hedychium gardnerianum*) resembling the white ginger, but has large, open inflorescenses about a foot long, resembling the Hawaiian *kahili*. Flowers are fragrant and yellow, except for a red, two-inch-long stamen. A

55. kahuna, n., v. 1. Originally, one of a class of experts, including priests and sorcerers. 2. To practice the art of a *kahuna*; to practice Hawaiian sorcery or white magic; to place a spell on one. 3. A spell. SA

56. kaka or tata /kākā/, v., adj. [Literally, to be odorous, fragrant or otherwise.] 1. To defecate--children's euphemism in Hawaiian. 2. Anything that is not good or is filthy. Cf., *pilau*, the term used by non-Hawaiians. SA

57. kaki'o /kāki'o/, n., adj. 1. Sore or impetigo. 2. Worthless, "no good." S

58. kala /kālā, dala/, n. [Eng. *dollar*.] Money. S

59. kalakoa, adj., n. [Eng. *calico*.] Calico, piebald, or variegated, referring to the color pattern of anything. ESA

60. kalua /kālua/ v. 1. To bake in an underground oven, or *imu*. 2. To prepare food in this manner. ESA

61. kamaaina /kama'āina/, n., adj. 1. A native. 2. A resident of long standing, especially one who has fitted into the local culture and point of view. 3. Characteristic of old-timers. Cf., *malihini*. SA

62. Kamehameha Day, n. [*Ka-mehameha*, literally, the lonely one + Eng. *day*.] June 11, a State holiday in Hawaii on which is celebrated the birth of Kamehameha I (born between 1750 and 1760, died 1819), the first to unite the Hawaiian Islands under a single sovereign. ESA

63. kanaka, n., adj. [*Kanaka*, man or human being.] 1. A native Hawaiian. 2. Characteristic of or pertaining to the natives. 3. A fellow "Hawaiian," regardless of ethnic background, especially when the term is used abroad. A

64. kane /kāne/, n., adj. 1. The male of any species. 2. Husband; one's "man." 3. Of or pertaining to males. SA

kapa (see *tapa*).

65. kapakahi, adj. One-sided; uneven; crooked; upside down; inside out; in general, not straight and in place. A

66. kapu, adj., v. 1. Tabu, forbidden. 2. Keep out! No trespassing! 3. Hands off! That's mine. SA

67. kapulu /kāpulu/, adj. 1. Dirty; slovenly; carelessly done. 2. Unfaithful in one's work. ESA

68. kaukau, n., v. [Most likely an adaptation of Cantonese Pidgin English *chowchow*. Could conceivably be a reduplicated form of Haw. *kau*, a special method of feeding in which the recipient receives food by holding his head back and opening his mouth.] 1. Food. 2. To eat; to eat and drink; to drink. ESA

69. keiki, n. 1. Offspring; young; child. 2. Shoot of a plant. ESA

ki (see *ti*).

70. kiawe, n. 1. The algaroba tree (*Prosopis* sp.), a tropical American legume, introduced to Hawaii in 1828. 2. Also, the fruit or pod of the tree. A

71. kini, n. [Eng. *tin.*] 1. A small steel marble, like a ball bearing. 2. Any kind of marble, a steel marble being distinguished as an "iron *kini.*" 3. In hopscotch, the stone (button, etc.) which is thrown into the squares. A

72. koa, n. 1. A native forest tree (*Acacia koa*) in Hawaii, with light-gray bark, crescent-shaped leaves, and white flowers in small, round heads. 2. Its red wood, which was formerly used for canoes, surfboards, and calabashes, is now used for furniture. SA

73. kokua /kōkua/, v., n. 1. To help in any way. 2. Aid. 3. One who aids. SA

74. kona /Kona/, n., adj. 1. A wind or storm of southerly or southwesterly winds and heavy rains. 2. Southwestern; southerly. SA

75. Kuhio Day, n. [*Kūhiō* + Eng. *day.*] March 26, a State holiday in Hawaii, the birthday of Prince Jonah Kuhio Kalanianaole (1871-1922), delegate of the Territory of Hawaii to Congress from 1902 to 1922, and sponsor of the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act, a method of homesteading for Hawaiians. ESA

76. kukae /kūkae/, n., v. 1. Excrements; dung; dung used as manure. 2. To move the bowels. ESA

77. ^{1}kuku or more infrequently tutu /kukū/, n. Thorn or spine. ES

^{2}kuku (see ^{2}*tutu*).

78. kukui, n. 1. The candlenut tree (*Aleurites moluccana*), a large tree bearing nuts containing white oily kernels (which were formerly used in Hawaii for lights and are still cooked for a relish) with silvery leaves and small white flowers. 2. The polished nuts, which are strung as leis. 3. The flower of this tree. ESA

79. kukui (nut) oil, n. [*Kukui* (+ Eng. *nut*) + Eng. *oil*.] Candlenut oil. A

80. kulolo /kūlolo/, n. Pudding made of taro and coconut, or sometimes of breadfruit and coconut. ESA

81. kumu /kūmū/, n. 1. Goatfish (*Upeneus porphyreus*). 2. Sometimes used to mean: good looking; beautiful; handsome; sweetheart. A

82. lanai /lānai/, n. A porch; veranda; patio; outside hallway. SA

83. lauhala /lau hala/, n. [*Lau*, leaf + *hala*, pandanus tree.] The leaf of the pandanus, much used in the manufacture of mats, hats, baskets, etc. 2. The tree itself. ESA

84. laulau, n. [Reduplicated form of *lau*, leaf.] A bundle of food (usually pork, fish, and taro tops) done up in ti or banana leaves for cooking in an *imu* or to be steamed or broiled. ESA

85. lehua, n. 1. The *ohia lehua* tree (*Metrosideros collina* var. *polymorpha*), shrubs to tall trees, with leaves round to narrow, blunt or pointed, smooth or downy. 2. The flowers of this tree, which are tufted and commonly red. 3. The wood of the tree, which is hard, heavy, fine-grained, and was formerly used for images, spears, and mallets. SA

86. lei, n. A garland or wreath for the neck or head, generally made of flowers or leaves but sometimes of paper, silk, or seeds. ESA

87. Lei Day, n. [*Lei* + Eng. *day*.] May Day in Hawaii, celebrated with pageants and prizes for the most beautiful and distinctive leis. ESA

88. lilikoi /liliko'i/, n. The purple water lemon or purple granadilla (*Passiflora edulis*); a variety grown commercially in Hawaii has yellow, better-tasting, and larger fruits. Also called *poka* or "passion fruit." ESA

89. limu, n. 1. A general name for all kinds of plants living under water, both fresh and salt. 2. Also algae growing on the ground, on rocks, and on other plants. 3. Also mosses; liverworts; lichens. ESA

90. lolo /lōlō/, adj., n. 1. Crazy or foolish (not so strong a word as *pupule*). 2. A crazy or very silly person. 3. A "dumb" person in the sense of being slow witted. ESA

lomi (see *lomilomi* salmon).

lomilomi (see *lomilomi salmon*).

91. lomilomi salmon, n. [Reduplicated form of *lomi*, to rub or press + Eng. *salmon*.] Salmon mashed with the fingers and mixed with onions and spices. This Hawaiian dish is often called *lomi* (salmon) or *lomilomi* (salmon). ESA

92. luau /lū'au/, n., adj. 1. A native Hawaiian feast. 2. In the style of a *luau*. ESA

93. luna, n. Overseer; boss; field foreman. A

94. mahalo /māhalo/, n. Thanks; thank you. SA

95. mahalo nui /māhalo nui/. Many thanks; thanks very much indeed. SA

96. mahalo nui loa /māhalo nui loa/. Same as *mahalo nui*. SA

97. mahea, adv. Where?; at what place? A

98. mahimahi, n. The dolphin (*Coryphaena hippurus*), a favorite game and food fish. SA

99. mahu /māhū/, adj., n. 1. Sissified. 2. An effeminate or sissified man. 3. A male sex pervert, especially a sodomite. SA

100. maile, n. A vine in the periwinkle family (*Alyxia olivaeformis*), the fragrant leaves and bark of which are used for decoration and leis. ESA

101. makahiki, n. [Formerly, *a* New Year festival at which athletic events were held.] The annual meet of the Boy Scouts; a jamboree. SA

102. makai, adv. Toward or at the sea, as opposed to *mauka*, inland. SA

103. makapa'a adj., n. 1. Blind, especially in one eye. 2. Person who is blind in one eye. A

104. make, adj., v. 1. Dead. 2. To die. 3. Physically exhausted. 4. Spent, as a spinning top. ESA

105. makule, adj., n. 1. Old or aged. 2. An old person. A

106. malihini, n., adj. 1. A newcomer; one not established socially and psychologically in Hawaii, as opposed to *kamaaina*. 2. Foreign to Hawaii; characteristic of outsiders. A

107. malo, n. A loincloth formerly worn by men, now seen only on ceremonial occasions. SA

108. manapua /mea'ono-pua'a/, n. [Shortened form of *mea'ono-pua'a*--i. e., *mea*, thing + *ono*, delicious + *pua'a*, pork.] Chinese cake made of rice flour, stuffed with pork, shrimp, etc. A

109. manini, n., adj. 1. Coral reef fish (*Hepatus sandvicensis*). 2. Small; mean; stingy. SA

110. mauka, adv. Mountainward, one of the two standard directions used in Hawaii. Cf., *makai*. SA

111. maunaloa /mauna-loa/, n. 1. A vine (*Canavalia microcarpa*) with white, lavender, pink or reddish flowers used for leis. 2. A vine (*Dioclea violacea*) with blue or white flowers used for leis. 3. A special way of stringing vanda orchids for leis. A

112. Mele Kalikimaka. [Eng. *Merry Christmas*.] Merry Christmas. SA

113. menehune /Menehune/, n. Mythical little people who work at night, said to be early inhabitants of Hawaii but still believed to appear. SA

114. moemoe, *v.*, n. [Reduplicated form of *moe*, to lie down to sleep.] 1. To lie down to sleep; to sleep. 2. Sleep. ESA

115. moi, n. Threadfish (*Polydactylus sexfilis*), prized for food. A

116. moloha /molowā (moloa)/, adj. [Variant form of *molowā*, which is occasionally heard also.] Lazy; indifferent. A

117. momona, adj., n. Fat; fleshy; large. A

118. muumuu /mu'umu'u/, n. [Literally, cut.] A loose gown or dress in gay colors and patterns, adapted from the missionary Mother Hubbard, and differing from the *holoku* in lacking a train. ESA

119. nene /nēnē/, n. The nearly extinct Hawaiian goose (*Branta sandvicensis*) that inhabits waterless uplands and feeds on berries and vegetation. A

120. no ka oi /no ka 'oi/, adj. [Literally, truly the best.] Used in phrases such as *Maui* *no* *ka* *oi*, in the sense of "Maui (or any locality named) above all;" "Maui is the best." A

121. ohelo /'ōhelo/, n. A small endemic Hawaiian shrub (*Vaccinium* *reticulatum*) in the cranberry family. A

122. okole /'ōkole/, n. 1. Arse, in the sense of either anus or buttocks, or both. 2. Of inanimate things, the rear or bottom end. ESA

123. okolehao /'ōkolehao/, n. [*'ōkole*, bottom + *hao*, iron--from the try-pot first used in distilling in Hawaii.] A distilled liquor manufactured in Hawaii from several materials, the best "oke" [óṷk] being that distilled from ti root. A

124. ono /'ono/, adj., v. 1. Palatable; delicious. 2. To crave a particular kind of food. ESA

125. opae /'ōpae/, n. 1. The general term for shrimp. 2. Shrimp, especially when used for bait. S

126. opelu /'ōpelu/, n. The mackerel scad (*Decapterus* *pinnulatus*), a very popular food fish. SA

127. opihi /'opihi/, n. Any of several species of limpet (*Helcioniscus*). ESA

128. opu /'ōpū/, n. Stomach; belly. ESA

129. pake /Pākē/, n., adj. [Cantonese *pak ye* or *pai kei*, uncle or father.] 1. A Chinese. 2. Pertaining to the Chinese. 3. Stingy. SA

130. pakemuu, n. [Pākē, Chinese + *mu'u* (shortened form of *mu'umu'u*), gown or dress.] A Chinese version of the Hawaiian muumuu, somewhat resembling the *cheong sam*, a Chinese dress. A

131. pali, n. A precipice. (On Oahu, the *Pali* is Nu'uanu Pali, not far from Honolulu; or, sometimes, the whole precipitous windward side of the Koolau Mountain Range.) A

132. panini, n. The prickly pear (*Opuntia megacantha*). S

133. papale /pāpale/, n. Headgear of any sort--especially, a hat. SA

134. papio, papiopio /pāpio, pāpiopio/, n. The young of the *ulua* fish. A

135. pau, adj., v. 1. Through; done; finished; used up; to be ended. 2. To stop; to end. ESA

136. pauhana, adj., n. [Literally, through work.] 1. Through work. 2. That part of the afternoon after quitting time. 3. The afternoon generally. SA

137. pa'u rider, n. [Pā'ū, a very full riding skirt + Eng. *rider*.] Woman horseback rider in parades wearing the *pa'u*. A

138. Pele, n. The goddess of vulcanism, often referred to as "Madam Pele." SA

139. pepeiao, n. [Literally, the ear.] 1. A Chinese delicacy, somewhat ear-shaped, filled with chopped meat. 2. The *pepeiao-akua*, a species of fungus growing on trees and used as food. A

140. pikake /pīkake/, n. The Arabian jasmine (*Jasminum sambac*), the fragrant white flowers of which are very popular for leis. SA

141. pilau, n., adj. 1. Bad odor; stinking; a stench; a stinker. 2. Dirty; filthy; nasty; "no good." ESA

142. pilikia, n. Trouble. A

143. pio, v., adj. 1. To extinguish or turn off, as a torch or gas jet, a fire, or an electric switch; even used in the sense of erase ("*pio* the blackboard"). 2. Extinguished or turned off--sometimes in the form *pio'd*. ESA

144. pipi /pīpī/, v. [Probably from Eng. *pee*.] To urinate. ESA

145. pipi kaula, n. [Eng. *beef* + *kaula*, rope.] Dried beef; jerked beef. A

146. poha /pohā/, n. Cape gooseberry (*Physalis peruviana*), a perennial herb bearing small, round, orange, tomato-like fruits, each with a thin papery covering, used for jam and jelly. A

147. poho /pohō/, n., v., adj. 1. Loss, waste, or damage. 2. To waste; to suffer loss or damage. 3. Lost; wasted; damaged. ESA

148. poi, n. A thick paste of taro root pounded (in modern times ground by machinery) with water, eaten cold as the staple food by the native Hawaiians. ESA

149. poi dog, n. 1. A native Hawaiian dog--now extinct. 2. Any nondescript cur. ESA

150. popolo /pōpolo/, n. [*Pōpolo*, the native pokeberry and/or *pōpolohua*, purplish-blue (as the sea); dark (as a bruise).] 1. The native pokeberry (*Phytolacca sandwicensis*), with dark purple berries. 2. Negro (a derogatory slang expression). ESA

151. puka, n. 1. Any sort of hole or perforation, from the smallest to the largest. 2. A doorway, a gateway; any place of entrance or egress. ESA

152. punee /pūne'e/, n. A rough couch or divan; a large couch. A

153. pupu /pūpū/, n. 1. Relish; hors d'oeuvres. 2. Shells used in the hula. SA

154. pupule, adj., n. 1. Crazy; insane. (A stronger word than *lolo.*) 2. A crazy person. ESA

155. tapa, kapa, n. Barkcloth, formerly made in Hawaii, but now imported. A

tata (see *kaka*).

156. ti, ki, n. A woody plant (*Cordyline terminalis*) in the lily family. The leaves are used for skirts, anklets, leis, and food wrappers, and the thick, sweet roots for food and for distilling liquor. ESA

^{1}tutu (see ^{1}*kuku*).

157. ^{2}tutu or more infrequently kuku /kūkū/, n. randpa; grandma. ESA

158. tutumuu, n. A loose gown, a kind of muumuu, usually with long sleeves, high ruffled yoke and gathers at the bottom. A

159. uku /'uku/, n. Small parasitic insects, especially those on the human body, and more particularly the flea (*uku lele*) and the head louse (*uku po'o*). ESA

160 ukulele sometimes spelled ukelele /'ukulele/, n. [Literally, jumping flea--probably because of the leaping of the player's fingers on the strings.] A four-stringed musical instrument played with the fingers. Often called "uke" [júk]. ESA

161. uliuli, ulili /'ulī'ulī/, *n.* [Reduplicated form of *'ulī*, to make a vibrating noice.] A rattle made of a gourd or coconut filled with seeds and topped with colored feathers and used as accompaniment for the hula. ES

162. ulu /'ulu/, n. The breadfruit (*Artocarpus incisus*), a member of the fig family, grown for its edible fruit which when cooked, tastes like sweet potatoes. ES

163. ulua, n. Certain species of crevalle or jack, an important game and food fish. A

164. waha, adj. [Literally, mouth or to talk too much.] Epithet applied to a person who talks of doing things but never follows through and actually does them. S

165. wahine, n., adj. 1. Woman; wife; sweetheart; mistress; female of any species (animal or plant). 2. Female; feminine. ESA

166. waikiki /Wai-kiki/, adj., adv. [*Wai*, water + *kiki*, spouting.] (See *ewa*). A

167. wana, n. Sea urchin (e.g., *Centrechinus paucispinus* or *Echinothrix diadema*). Also called "porcupine." S

168. wikiwiki, adv. [Reduplication of *wiki*, fast.] Quickly; in haste; right away; hurry up. SA

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